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The Social Studies

VOLUME XLI, NUMBER 5

MAY, 1950

Should General Education Be Retained ?

RALPH N. D. ATKINSON

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Citizens of Denver—parents, teachers, pupils—have recently criticized the general education program of Denver Public Schools. Much of this criticism has been constructive, but some of it has been destructive. Is this criticism just? If so, are the defects of the general education plan broad enough in scope to justify the elimination of this experiment from our school system? One cannot answer questions of such magnitude without serious consideration of the whole question of general education. No true citizen of the city of Denver would want to discard anything which might be pertinent in the training of present-day youth. Let us, therefore, consider this most vital question very seriously before we make any snap judgments as to whether we should reject or retain our present system of general education.

In general education, the teacher tries to guide his pupils in all the phases of his learning, so that each pupil becomes aware of his recognized needs and the needs of which he is as yet unaware. The problems of guidance, carefully and skillfully carried through, are very challenging.

Some of the critics have said that the place for guidance of youth is in the home. Perhaps that is true, but is there enough guidance in the home? Even though the family heads have the experience necessary to make them good guides, would they not appreciate the assistance of teachers fitted for this task? Much of the student's time is spent at school. Obviously this time would be more valuable to him, if he were guided toward the preparation of his life's work, than if he were just permitted to take the subjects suggested at home, with no attempt on the part of the school to help in this important part of his school life. This program-

making is but one of the minor phases of the real purpose of guidance which takes into account the full life of the student. These same critics say: "Of course guidance is necessary, but it should be left to the subject-matter teacher." When this was the case how much guidance was done? So far as the writer is concerned, very little. Had it not been for a far-sighted principal and possibly two teachers, his guidance would have been negligible. The writer's schooling was in a small town where there is less need for guidance courses than in the city, but even there the lack of it was clear. The reader, upon considering this question, will probably have the same reaction concerning his schooling. Thus we see that there is a real need for group guidance, with an opportunity for the student to carry his own personal guidance to a counselor he trusts.

A student who is striving to attain some recognized objectives is more easily guided by a friend whose experience and wisdom can aid him in attaining those objectives. All of us move forward toward goals and aims we have set for ourselves. The teacher has made his most significant accomplishment when he can discover the worthy goals a student wishes to attain, and can help him reach these goals. It is in such a relationship, between the teacher and the student, that these objectives may be accomplished. The teacher interested in subject matter and drill cannot achieve this end. We must remember that guidance is not just suggesting the courses to be taken in school, but is the study of the complete preparation of the student for adulthood. Should we not then keep a place in our curriculum for guidance for those who desire it—a large majority of our people? There is little argument against this premise.

Since the work of the guidance teacher must be broad in its scope, there is a danger that personnel work will be too narrow in its outlook. Thus the teacher is challenged to search completely every item of needed adjustment for the individual pupil now and for later. The school cannot complete this work; however, it can aid the individual students in solving their own guidance problems. The subject matter teacher cannot devote sufficient time, thought, or energy to this problem. It should, therefore, be the place of the general education teacher to make this study and to help in this counseling.

This type of teaching is the dynamic process of helping the individual students find their place in life. It is the way whereby students can express themselves on an adult level and thus feel that they can use initiative and not be told everything they should do and the way of doing it. They want to express themselves and seek their own counsel when they see a need for it. This opportunity is made possible for them to a greater degree in general education, or a guidance group, than in any educational setup yet devised.

To be fully effective, this type of educational plan must grow out of the experiences of the group. It should follow the principle that the best education is given when the privilege of sharing the entire growing creative life of the school is vested in the pupil, teacher, advisers, and administrators working together. No part of the plan should be superimposed. No teacher should be forced to take a part in this type of teaching unless he has the desire to do so. Those who wish to concern themselves with subject matter classes only will not have the enthusiasm nor the desire to develop a real guidance class. Perhaps those teachers should have a homeroom for the students who feel no need for guidance, but those who have specialized in this type of guidance counseling will make it a meaningful experience to their classes. Such teachers will build guidance and counseling to the extent that it will have a real carry-over into the pupil's adult life.

These considerations are vital to parents and teachers who are really concerned with the direction of youth. The plan helps youth build wisely his educational program. Such a program will include all that society considers

wholesome, both for itself and for the student, but it will have grown from the youth himself without the idea entering in that this is what adults think his task should be. By this method of stimulation, a vast amount of information will get into the thinking of youth and will compel him to develop a program of guidance for himself, meanwhile soliciting the aid of an adult in whom he believes. Surely, any thinking person favors such a program. It will help build our youth to take their active part in tomorrow's civic leadership, and in the building of stable American family life.

To win the people's support, our general education policy must be safe and sound; but it must also use this dynamic power of guidance for the great end that people believe in, which is the preparation of youth to meet adult life situations in an adult way. The whole of our "General Education Policy" may be summarized in the triad which follows:

- 1) We want a citizenry which is prepared to do well the task expected of it; to accomplish this we must depend on both our home and our school guidance.
- 2) We want a society in which young America's prosperity has developed because it has been the result of our cooperative sharing with one another.
- 3) We want a community in which the home is safe, because it is secured by the sound and wholesome influence of the present family, with the help of a growing system of educational guidance.

This can be our policy only if the people of Denver agree that it should be. They cannot reject it on the ground that it does not express their self-interest, for it does. Preparedness, prosperity and security are a triad which cannot be separated. This is the principle on which our General Education Plan is founded, and through it, our system will build the type of youth worth fighting for. It is an American educational principle and we are not going to allow anything so vital to die unchallenged. It is our answer to a fuller educational experience for our young people.

It has not been our purpose to tell you, but to recall with you the present trends of the General Education Plan. Our problem is not new, but one which challenges our best reflec-

tive thinking. We sincerely believe the statement made by Charles William Heathcote in the February, 1949, issue of *THE SOCIAL STUDIES*, where he says that "since the teacher is dealing with life—vital human life—he has the best of all materials with which to deal; but life is more than these; it is something immortal." It is maintained that since the teacher receives this life in its most plastic, pliable state and condition, it is possible for the teacher's mind, will, and conviction to mold the plastic mind organism of the pupils. Therefore, the important position of the teacher in the guidance program is clearly evident.

At the South Side High School, in Denver, much consideration has been given to the development of a truly functional counseling program. Individual counseling rooms have been arranged where the teacher works with individual students in guidance. The teacher is assigned to such a room for a period, each day, where he may call students for conference, or where the students may seek his counsel.

This is an effort to make guidance continuous, and to make available to the student someone who knows the student's problems as they may develop throughout his entire course at the school. This contact is increasingly necessary as our school populations become larger. If we are to teach students to be well-adjusted individuals, it is necessary to understand their world, their part in it, and their potentialities in it. Adjustments to the society about us have always been necessary. When we fail to help our youth make these adjustments the chances for anti-social breakdown abound.

Our society has long been concerned about the question of how to develop an understanding of the world in which we live. There have been nearly as many answers proposed as there are curriculum committees. Each group seems to offer the answer in terms of its own disciplines. However, the contemporary answer of the General Education Plan at South is to improve the guidance program, by offering individuals guidance and counsel, to help them meet the problems that arise while they are in the classroom (group) situation.

That modern society faces many serious social, economic, and political problems, is a well recognized fact. The members of the South

High School General Education Plan are attempting to show that these problems indicate a radical transformation which is sweeping society. We no longer change socially in the gradual manner in which we changed in earlier decades. This is true to such an extent that a contemporary of Lincoln would be more at home in King Arthur's court than in modern Washington.

Your children—whether born last year, this year, or the year after the end of the cold war—will run the world. The type of counseling we give these youngsters molds the type of nation they shall create. What are we educating them for? What kind of curriculum do we wish to maintain for their good and for the good of society as a whole? The school needs to understand the problems of youth in order to develop a curriculum to meet these needs. Likewise, the parents will have to plan their living so as to meet these demands.

Factors of success in working with, and getting along with, people have been the concepts of philosophers for years, yet these factors still will be used in part to shape the world of the future. We, as parents and teachers, must therefore give our children this point of view.

We in general education realize our dependence upon other teachers, administrators, parents and community agencies. None of us feels that he is operating alone and unaided. We believe that the general education plan is a necessary part of this cooperative effort. Young people should be taught the principles of guidance which will make it possible for them to help build a solidarity in their own communities. Consequently, general education has been developed to give these young people an insight into the ways of making this achievement.

It is the task of the parents and teachers of today to build a cultural heritage for our youngsters so that they can shape the future world more as we would like to have it shaped.

The pupils are very responsive to the training they receive. They seem to be eager to develop a plan for themselves so that they may be prepared to meet their responsibilities in life. They wish to help protect what every true American loves—home, family, and freedom.

Anglo - American Relations

HENRY NOBLE SHERWOOD

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Two nations with a common heritage always have among their citizens critics who analyze each country with marked clarity. For example, the British historian, Professor R. B. Mowat, thought that Americans were like Englishmen but he preferred to express himself in the words of a woman of the South who liked "Englishmen because they resembled Americans." During the diplomatic tension between Germany and England, just before World War II, some wit started the saying: "The Americans will fight for freedom to the last Englishman." An American author chose for the title of his book: *England Expects Every American to Do His Duty*. When two peoples think about one another in these terms doubtless they are conscious of a debt to each other as well as of an obligation; in fact, as Professor Mowat put it, they "have their civilization and culture in common." Moreover, to preserve the legacy of their fathers they will find, notwithstanding past irritation and present distrust, a way to cooperate with each other. Twice in our generation, the flags of these two democratic nations have marched abreast in martial combat to make safe the processes of freedom and justice won during the centuries of previous struggle.

The roots of this cooperation lie deep in the past. They were planted on English soil centuries before the famous schismatic resolution of Richard Henry Lee was adopted on July 4, 1776. They are the social and political ideals and institutions that Englishmen developed on their island before the period of colonial expansion; later they transplanted them to our Atlantic seaboard and cultivated them there, as well as at home, while both areas were parts of the British Empire. With this history our founding fathers were familiar.

COMMON POLITICAL IDEALS

The founding fathers knew how the power of the king had been curtailed. It was a gradual process covering a long span of years. King John, the first notable example of the process,

grudgingly granted Magna Carta in 1215; Charles I, a victim of his own obstinacy and duplicity in Civil War days, went to the scaffold in 1649; James II, making way for the enactment of statutes fundamental to liberty in 1689, fled the realm and with him went the idea of divine right; Anne, unconscious of the significant gains already made in limited government, exercised the last royal veto in 1707. The same forces that sheared the kings of their power brought Parliament into existence and gave to it many of their functions. By 1776, it was a representative body, regularly summoned; it enjoyed freedom of debate; it considered the affairs of the realm; levied taxes; enacted and repealed laws; and exercised the right of impeachment. Moreover, measures for safeguarding personal liberty had been taken, such as trial by jury, the writ of habeas corpus, and the system of common law. These with other gains in constitutional government became the rights of Englishmen and were equally guarded in the American colonies and on the island of their origin.

In this historical soil lay the common civilization and culture of the two nations. Personal liberty, representative government, and constitutional guarantees were priceless privileges brought to America by colonists who held that they were Englishmen outside of English soil but not outside of English law. They claimed and received, as Professor Albert Bushnell Hart has pointed out, "the traditional common-law rights and the benefit of the English charters of liberty." Royal grants of political and religious privileges to prospective colonists tempted radicals and dissenters to emigrate to America. Leaders in Virginia never forgot that their charter provided that the colonists were to have all the rights and liberties "as if they had been abiding and born within this Realm of England." Well could the Revolutionary patriot, James Otis, talk about "our essential and common rights as Englishmen." At the beginning of colonial

armed resistance to the mother country, Loyalists numbered at least one-third of the population. "Even those who emphasize our grievances in the American Revolution," says Professor C. H. McIlwain, "would do well to consider that American opposition grew in large part out of English ideals; and to remember, for example, that the cry 'no taxation without representation' could hardly have arisen in any but an English country." With these evidences of a common political ideal it is clear why George Washington said: "When I took command of the Army, I abhorred the idea of independence." The ideals of law and government held by the original settlers dominated their descendants.

CLASSICAL TRADITION

To the political ideals, held in common by the two peoples, must be added the classical tradition. This is the cultural heritage of Greece, Rome, and the early Christian church. It came to England from Rome and from the Normans, and to America with the English colonists during the seventeenth century. It was cultivated here by Harvard and other early colleges that were established in the tradition of Oxford and Cambridge and made the pattern of early American education. In the United States 182 colleges were founded prior to the Civil War. Those first established, as President Charles Franklin Thwing says, "gave origin, quickening, and form to the higher education in America" and manifested "the English tradition in academic government, methods, and content of instruction till the outbreak of the American Revolution."

In the classics, the English found adequate subject matter for the mental discipline needed by intellectual and religious leaders. To the ancient writers they went for the last word on politics and philosophy. Many Englishmen who emigrated to America knew the best minds of antiquity and transplanted their thought to America. English settlers, steeped in the classical tradition, believed themselves able to disregard unsound advice, to fit themselves for the duties of their day, and to save the best of their generation for the one to follow them. Intellectual kinship with England, built upon these ancient foundations, gave direction to American ideals.

COMMON LANGUAGE

Another characteristic common to these two peoples is their language; they have a common tongue. Long before the historic *Mayflower* made anchor in Plymouth harbor, the sources of the English language had been so fused together that poets, playwrights, and preachers could use it as a national medium of communication. When Shakespeare died in 1616, his genius for diction and style had made English speech immortal.

"The English version of the Bible," in the words of the historian J. R. Green, "remains the noblest example of the English tongue, while its perpetual use made it from the instant of its appearance the standard of our language." This tongue, common both to the English in the homeland and to the colonists in America, was the most potent influence in keeping their ties intimate and the interchange of thought continuous. Cultured colonists knew the literary heritage of Milton and other men of letters, not less than the political philosophy of Locke and other interpreters of government. Richard Rush, our minister at the Court of St. James's when the Monroe Doctrine was announced, once said that an American constantly hears about the statesmen, orators, philosophers, divines and patriots of England. "In the nursery, he learns her ballads. Her poets train his imagination. Her language is his own with its whole intellectual riches, past and forever newly flowing; a tie, to use Burke's figure, light as air, and unseen; but stronger than the links of iron."

The tongue one speaks, in most cases, determines the limits of his intellectual life. The language he reads is his daily mental food. Only men of extraordinary gifts or exceptional opportunities master more than one language. The common tongue of the English and the early citizens of our country gave them a common understanding, an understanding in terms of English ideals. If Americans stressed the importance of individuals—"a principal end and fruit of every society," as Emerson says—they stressed an ideal of England where every man, to quote Emerson again, "is allowed and encouraged to be what he is, and is guarded in the indulgence of his whim." This sacredness of the individual was the basis of the

principle of freedom. The two peoples, before the cleavage of the empire, were one in political ideals and in classical tradition. Moreover, being one in language they were by and large one in understanding.

A DIVIDED EMPIRE

Why then a misunderstanding so significant that Englishmen in our country rebelled against Englishmen in England, obtained their political independence, and set up a United States of America? Why did these political units in less than a generation engage in a second war? Why did not their common culture and civilization prevent such a catastrophe of fratricidal strife and international friction? Why did these two peoples, largely of the same stock and same ideals, fail to move together in the same political organization? An understanding of the English inheritance of the Americans and the environment in which the two peoples moved is the answer to the question. The Americans inherited English civilization which had been seven hundred years in the making. This inheritance in its political setting was in extreme peril during the seventeenth century in England. Kings arose who knew not constitutional government and in their attempt at tyranny well nigh put civil liberty on the scaffold. During this conflict between two theories of government, absolutists and constitutionalists fought a civil war. In the name of liberty, the latter executed one king, deposed another and secured parliamentary legislation so important that today it is considered a part of the English constitution. The divine right of kings gave way to the political theory of John Locke; constitutional government was won. The English political ideals were not only preserved; they were enriched.

While England beat out her fundamental laws on the anvil of debate and civil war, America, influenced by the struggle to liberalize government in the homeland, forged for herself in the furnace of political experience, the principles of democratic government later set forth in the Declaration of Independence. Often helped by dissenting and radical colonists from England who fled the land to escape kingship unlimited, and always at an advantage, because, to use the words of Burke, "the

chains of nature" separated them by 3,000 miles from royal absolutism, American leaders very stubbornly applied the political theory of their English kinsmen to the "settlement of ordinary everyday affairs of political life." In a more favorable environment for developing the democratic way of life than that of their cousins across the sea the Americans made good their opportunity. Professor Edward Channing says they used thirty words to make their plea for the Common Law and the eternal rights of man: "Government is a conditional compact between king and people . . . a violation of the covenant by either party discharges the other from its obligation." "An Act [of Parliament] against the Constitution is void." These principles, held stoutly in England by liberal leaders, the Americans applied to political life in their own environment.

Despite the constitutional gains made in England during the seventeenth century an attempt was made during the eighteenth to restore royal absolutism. George III, a king, declares the Declaration of Independence, whose character was "marked by every act which may define a tyrant" and whose rule was a "history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny" over the American colonies, tried to restrict the liberty of his subjects both at home and abroad. The Americans under a more favorable environment were adopting the new democratic ideals faster than the mother country. They recognized that hand in hand with the attempt to restore royal absolutism was the gradual transition of England to an Empire and the imperial ideal. Selfish, commercial measures—the sin of Empire committed against the trading interests in America—were so provoking to the colonists that they finally asserted their independence and became the United States of America.

From Jamestown, the first permanent English settlement on our shores, to the present day is almost three hundred and fifty years. The Declaration of Independence cuts this period into two parts. The period during which our people lived as an integral part of Britain is about the same length as that during which they have functioned as an independent

nation. The date 1776 is both the end and the beginning of an era.

The new era was officially introduced by expressions of good will and suggestions for friendly association in the future. David Hartley, one of the British peace commissioners of 1783, on his return to England from his mission in Paris, advised his government "to proceed to open an intercourse between our two countries, as nearly as possible, to the point of *as we were*." Six weeks after he had signed the treaty recognizing the independence of the United States, Franklin asked him: "What would you think of a proposition, if I should make it, of a compact between England, France, and America? Our country," continued Franklin, "would be as happy as the Sabine Girls, if she could be the means of uniting in perpetual peace her father and her husband."

When John Adams, our first ambassador to the Court of St. James's, was presented to King George, he said he wanted to restore the "old good-nature and the old good humor between people, who, though separated by an ocean, and under different governments, have the same language, a similar religion, and kindred blood." To which the king replied, "I have always said, as I say now, that I would be the first to meet the friendship of the United States as an independent Power."

NEUTRALITY FAILS

Soon after the breach in the empire, France, one of the European states that had made real contributions to the success of the American rebels, again became a military rival of Great Britain, challenging her sea power and her colonial empire. The United States attempted to maintain neutrality in this conflict but was unable to do so. As a neutral, her shipping suffered from both belligerents. Although no declaration of war was made against France, maritime hostilities between the United States and this nation took place in 1799. War was declared on Great Britain on June 18, 1812. The orders under which British naval officers were acting in searching American ships were revoked June 23; as early as June 16 Britain announced the orders would be suspended. If the telephone or telegraph had been

in use at that time probably war would have been averted.

The Treaty of Ghent, signed after four and one-half months of negotiation made no mention of impressment or ship seizures; in fact it settled no cause of the conflict. It established peace again, provided for the surrender of captured territory, and arranged for the appointment of three commissions to settle outstanding territorial disputes. The forces of an independent nation, made free in 1776, now began to function in terms of national unity, and the American division of the English-speaking race, building on its colonial inheritance but in its own name, set out to make its contribution to the larger meaning of life.

The year 1815 not only terminated the war between the United States and Britain, but also ended the series of European wars which had lasted for over one hundred years. These wars, constituting a gigantic struggle between Britain and France for colonial dominion and sea power, were fought wherever the two nations had colonies. War in Europe meant war in America. Because of these wars France had readily helped the English colonists fight their mother country. Partly because of these wars, Britain found it necessary to grant the colonists independence. The new nation needed time to establish its government on solid foundations. Therefore it sought neutrality in the political broils and wars of Europe. The issues between the two chief contestants, however, reached the very borders of their far-flung empires and denied the American nation its wish until the end of the struggle.

PEACEFUL SETTLEMENT OF DISPUTES

The two English-speaking nations since that time have adjusted their differences by negotiation and have sometimes associated themselves with one another in joint undertakings. After the War of 1812, despite the "offensively supercilious attitude of the English and the self-assertive arrogance of the Americans," to quote Lord Bryce, the disputes about fisheries, the Canadian boundary from the Lake of the Woods to the Rocky Mountains, and the Oregon Territory were amicably settled through diplomatic channels. Despite the Treaty of Ghent, each country, in rivalry with the other, immediately continued to strengthen

its naval forces on the Great Lakes, an armament race entailing expense and increasing the danger of collision between the nations. In a conciliatory spirit, the United States and Great Britain signed a disarmament agreement in the spring of 1817 which reduced the naval forces on the Lakes to a few patrol ships required for police purposes against smugglers. This agreement, known as the Rush-Bagot agreement from the names of the men who concluded it, is the first and best example of international disarmament. In the words of J. H. Latone: "It may be questioned whether any more enlightened or far-sighted step in the direction of peace was ever taken by two countries similarly situated." The entire American-Canadian frontier, subsequently extended to the Pacific, land as well as water, has remained undefended.

Eight years after the close of our second war with Britain, her foreign secretary made an extraordinary proposal to our minister in London: Would the United States join England in an effort to prevent Spain, probably aided by European powers, from regaining her lost colonies in the New World? Military action would not be necessary; only a joint declaration by the United States and England that the two countries were in agreement on preventing the recovery of the Spanish-American colonies. The proposal was extraordinary because a first class power that forty years before had held our country as a colony and nine years before had burned our Capitol invited us, a third class power, to form a partnership with her.

President Monroe doubtless would have accepted the proposal—for both ex-Presidents Jefferson and Madison, whose opinions he sought, advised him to do so—had not his Secretary of State, John Quincy Adams, recommended a unilateral statement. In keeping with the recommendation of Adams, Monroe, in his annual message to Congress in 1823, declared, among other things, that the United

States would view any effort of the European States to control the destiny of their colonies already recognized by our government as independent states as an unfriendly act.

This declaration, constituting in part what later came to be known as the Monroe Doctrine, was received with enthusiasm by some of the liberals in the country of its origin. Lord Brougham thought no "event dispersed greater joy, exultation, and gratitude over all the free men of Europe." Sir James Mackintosh said: "This coincidence of the two great English commonwealths (for so I delight to call them; and I heartily pray that they may be forever united in the cause of justice and liberty) cannot be contemplated without the utmost pleasure by every enlightened citizen of the earth." A marked change had come about in Anglo-American relations; the judgment of President Monroe, that, in 1823, the policies of the two countries was the same was right.

Since 1823, every problem between Great Britain and the United States has been settled by peaceful means. There has been provocation on both sides. Some Mayor Thompson has always been ready to play up the resentment latent in all Irish-Americans. The disposition of lands beyond the western frontier gave expansionists opportunity to revive old quarrels. Misconduct of Britain during the Civil War, later costing her \$15,500,000, greatly irritated our leaders. The controversy over the Venezuela boundary provoked war talk. Despite all these troubles, Britain definitely aided us in the Spanish-American troubles. During the two world wars, these two Anglo-Saxon nations were allies.

Space forbids the development of these topics and a discussion of current international matters. The purpose of the paper—to clarify the earliest relationships between the nations and to give the background for an intelligent appraisal of contemporary policy—has been fulfilled.

A Unit Course Outline in American History*

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PART III

The two units on American history that follow conclude the series which is designed to cover one year's work. Unit VII may require additional time beyond the one year originally intended for the course. Although it concerns primarily the development of the foreign policy of the United States, its broader intent is to give the student a more thorough understanding of the nations and peoples of the world, with whom we have had, and will continue to have, close relations. The problem of the future peace of the world is a very important phase of our foreign policy, and for that reason has been given considerable emphasis. The time allotment can be expanded or contracted depending upon the students' maturity and the intensity of coverage desired. In certain schools, it might be more desirable to give Unit VII to the graduating students in order to serve as a review of American-world relations and to focus their attention on current world problems.

Unit VI. Broadening the Base of Democracy. I. *Introduction.* Democracy in our country did not come about all at once. It developed by degrees, and the process is still continuing. The period of colonization laid the foundation for it. The Declaration of Independence, the American Revolution which followed, and the Constitution were its cornerstones. The Civil War, the first testing ground for this democracy, proved that a government of, by, and for the people could exist and flourish. It gave democracy a broader meaning. The people no longer meant some of the people, or those of certain race or color; it meant all of the people.

But true democracy still had a long way to go. There were citizens who were citizens

only in name. Women were disfranchised. The poor whites in the South could not vote; most of the Negroes could not vote. It is true that the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments were part of the Constitution, but politicians knew how to get around them. There were other practices which prevented democracy from developing unhindered. Senators were still not elected by the people. Political chicanery, the spoils system, and "Boss" politics were in the saddle in many places. Ignorance, lack of education, and indifference, the greatest enemies of democracy, were still with us.

However, leaders appeared who sought to broaden democracy's base by giving more people active representation in their government. They fought against the spoils system. They denounced corruption in government. They waged battle against ignorance. They used the newspaper and the soap box as well as the halls of Congress to make known their demands. They organized new political parties and destroyed old ones. They won few elections, but they were heard. Democracy triumphed and was further expanded.

Then came the World War I and afterwards new triumphs and new setbacks. Back to "normalcy" and "Tea Pot-Dome" politics for awhile gained the upper hand. But even during this period, democracy grew in strength—women were franchised; the federal government gained the right to tax incomes of individuals and corporations; education, science, art and literature made new advances. The depression of the 1930's was another setback, but it revealed the need of broadening democracy at another base. A new philosophy came into being—the philosophy of the common man. And then came World War II and victory—a testing ground for this new philosophy. The battle for freedom is still on, and is world-wide.

II. *The End of the Frontier and the Rise of*

* This is the third and last part of a seven-unit course in American history. Parts I and II appeared in the March and April issues of THE SOCIAL STUDIES. The entire course will be available in booklet form.

Big Business. (Two weeks)

A. Specific Understandings to be Derived.

1. An understanding of the forces that contributed to the growth of "Big Business," and of the economic and political forces that confronted our country, after its territorial expansion from the Atlantic to the Pacific was completed.
2. An appreciation of the role played by leaders in government, industry, labor, and other phases of our social life, during this period, and of their influence on the continued expansion of the democratic ideal.

B. Pupil Activities.

Read in your textbooks the pages dealing with the above topics. (See list of books at end of course outline)

Answer the following questions:

1. Name the first transcontinental railroads. How were they financed? In what other fields has the government offered subsidies?
2. How did the discovery of such metals as gold, silver, and copper further the expansion towards the Pacific?
3. Why was unemployment less a problem before 1900 than it is today?
4. Explain why many of the progressive movements of the 1890's came from the West.
5. List and describe the railroad abuses of the 1870's.
6. What was the Patrons of Husbandry or the Grange?
7. What were some of the causes behind the development of labor unions?
8. List the outstanding labor and industrial leaders during the period between Grant's administration and the Spanish-American War.
9. Describe some of the cultural advances made in science, literature, and education during this period.

C. Home and Library Work.

1. Draw a map showing the names of the different states admitted into the Union between 1860-1912. Include also the names of important cities and bodies of water in these states.
2. Write a brief summary on the following topics.

(1) The Panic of 1873.

(2) The Pullman Strike of 1894.

(3) Tariff and Politics.

(4) The Redemption of "Greenbacks."

3. Identify in a few sentences the following persons. Indicate the contribution each made.

(1) Sir Henry Bessemer

(2) Uriah H. Stevens

(3) Jay Gould

(4) John P. Altgeld

(5) J. P. Morgan

(6) Ulysses S. Grant

(7) Andrew Carnegie

(8) Eugene V. Debs

4. Write a report of about 500 words on any of the above topics or persons.

III. *Political and Economic Reform* (One week)

A. Specific Understandings to be Derived.

1. An understanding of the causes that gave rise to political corruption in government.
2. An understanding of the various reform movements—political, economic, agricultural—designed to end corruption and bring about an extension of the benefits of democracy to more people.

B. Pupil Activities.

Read in your textbooks the pages dealing with the above topic.

Answer the following questions.

1. Describe the following cases of corruption in government:
 - (1) The Tweed Ring
 - (2) The Crédit Mobilier Case
 - (3) "Carpet-bag" Rule in the South
 - (4) The Salary Grab
 - (5) The Whiskey Ring
2. Define "the spoils system"; "political patronage"; "log rolling."
3. Give the provisions of the Civil Service Act of 1883.
4. List the functions of the Interstate Commerce Commission; of the Federal Trade Commission.
5. Who were the Populists? What were their political and economic demands?
6. Describe Theodore Roosevelt's policy towards trusts.
7. Who were the Socialists?

8. Define the following:

- (1) Initiative
- (2) Referendum
- (3) Recall
- (4) Unicameral
- (5) Bicameral
- (6) City Manager Plan
- (7) Popular Election of Senators
- (8) Woman Suffrage
- (9) Primary Election
- (10) Direct Primaries

C. Home and Library Work.

1. Write a brief summary of the following topics.

- (1) The Prohibition Party
- (2) The Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia
- (3) The Elections of 1872, 1876, 1880, 1884, 1888, 1892, 1896, 1900, 1904, 1908, 1912
- (4) The Knights of Labor
- (5) The Industrial Workers of the World
- (6) The Haymarket Affair
- (7) Henry George and the Single Tax
- (8) The Injunction and its Use in Labor Disputes
- (9) William J. Bryan and the Silver Issue
- (10) Advances in Public Education
- (11) Factory Reform and Inspection Laws
- (12) The Eight-Hour Day
- (13) Child Labor Reforms
- (14) Workmen's Compensation
- (15) The Pure Food and Drug Acts of 1906 and 1938

2. Write a brief summary on the following persons:

- (1) James Gordon Bennett
- (2) James G. Blaine
- (3) Roscoe Conklin
- (4) George W. Curtis
- (5) Theodore Roosevelt
- (6) William McKinley
- (7) Grover Cleveland
- (8) Samuel J. Tilden
- (9) Oakes Ames
- (10) Carrie Chapman Catt
- (11) Henry Ford
- (12) Samuel Gompers

(13) William H. Taft

(14) Robert M. La Follette

IV. *Problems of Citizenship and Continued Economic Reform.* (Two weeks)

A. Specific understandings to be derived:

1. An understanding of the changing character of our population as a result of new waves of immigration.
2. An understanding of the problems that faced our country, beginning with the early decades of the twentieth century and leading up to the Depression of the 1930's and the Second World War.

B. Pupil Activities.

Read in your textbooks the pages dealing with the above topics.

Answer the following questions.

1. What new groups of people came to our country after 1890?
2. What social problems did they create?
3. How did the professional politician make use of the foreign born citizen?
4. What attitude should the native born citizen take to the immigrant and his offspring?
5. What restrictive laws were passed to check immigration in 1882; in 1885; in 1917; in 1924; and in 1929?
6. What was the tariff policy adopted by Congress immediately after World War I?
7. What were the factors that caused the farmers' income to drop at the end of World War I?
8. What was the principal weakness of Harding's administration?
9. What were some of the causes of the Depression of the 1930's?
10. Why was the administration of Franklin D. Roosevelt called the "New Deal"?
11. What new social and economic legislation did it enact?
12. What is meant by government or economic planning?

C. Home and Library Work.

1. Write a brief statement describing the following:

- (1) The Growth of the Steel Industry in the United States
- (2) The Elections of Wilson, Harding, Coolidge, Hoover, and Franklin D.

- Roosevelt
 - (3) The Railroads During and After World War I
 - (4) Cultural Progress—1900 to the Present
 - (5) Philanthropic Agencies and Movements
 - (6) The National Industrial Recovery Act
 - (7) The Agricultural Adjustment Act
 - (8) The Reciprocal Trade Treaties
 - (9) The "Lame Duck Amendment"
 - (10) Roosevelt and the Supreme Court Issue
 - (11) The Social Security Act
 - (12) The National Labor Relations Act
 - (13) The Wages and Hours Act
 - (14) The Election of 1944—Issues and Men Involved
 2. Write a brief summary of the role played by the following persons during this period of our history.
 - (1) William H. Taft
 - (2) Warren G. Harding
 - (3) Calvin Coolidge
 - (4) Franklin D. Roosevelt
 - (5) "Al" Smith
 - (6) Russell Sage
 - (7) Julian Rosenwald
 - (8) John Dewey
 - (9) Cordell Hull
 - (10) Herbert Hoover
- V. Current Issues and Problems. (Two weeks)**
- A. Specific Understandings to be Derived:**
1. An understanding of the major social and economic issues that faced our country following the end of World War II.
 2. An understanding of the current political and economic theories proposed for meeting our major economic and social problems.
- B. Pupil Activities.**
- Read in your text or reference books the pages dealing with the above topics. Answer the following questions:
1. What problems of a domestic nature did our country face following the end of World War II concerning Housing? Prices? Labor?
 2. Discuss briefly the Office of Price Administration (OPA) during and after World War II.
3. Define: inflation; deflation; "disinflation."
 4. Describe the role of the federal government in slum clearance and public housing during the administrations of Franklin D. Roosevelt and Harry S. Truman.
 5. What new legislation has been proposed in connection with social security? Health and medical insurance? Education?
 6. Describe the principal provisions of the Taft-Hartley Act.
 7. Discuss President Truman's civil rights program.
 8. Describe the reaction to Communism in this country following the end of World War II.
 9. What are the principal provisions of the new tax law regarding personal and corporate taxes?
 10. What new problems of a domestic nature does the development of atomic energy place before our country?
 11. Describe the government's efforts to stabilize the income of the farmer.
 12. Compare our form of economy with that of England under the Labor Government.
- C. Home and Library Work.**
1. Write a brief description of the following:
 - (1) Cost of World War II
 - (2) Merging the Armed Services into One Department
 - (3) Election of 1948
 - (4) The Railroads Since the War
 - (5) The Atomic Energy Commission
 - (6) Immigration Policies Since the End of the War
 - (7) Peacetime Military Training
 - (8) Proposals for Full Employment
 - (9) The Cooperative Movement in the United States
 - (10) Political Patronage
 - (11) Lobbying and Pressure Groups
 - (12) Advances in Radio and Television
 - (13) Advances in Air Transportation
 - (14) Marriage and Family Problems of Today

- (15) Federal Housing Agencies
 - (16) The National Debt
 - (17) Discoveries in Science and Medicine
 - (18) The Influence of Radio and News Commentators on Public Opinion
2. Write a brief description of the role played by the following persons in connection with recent domestic events:
- (1) Harry S. Truman
 - (2) Robert A. Taft
 - (3) David Lillienthal
 - (4) Henry A. Wallace
 - (5) Thomas E. Dewey
 - (6) Fiorella La Guardia
 - (7) Harold L. Ickes
 - (8) John L. Lewis

Unit VII. American Foreign Policy

I. *Introduction.*¹ If we look back upon our 170 years as a nation, we can see what we might term beacons of light guiding our destiny in foreign relations. The first was lit by George Washington in his Farewell Address to the people of the country, and is contained in the words "no permanent alliances." During the course of our history, Washington's words were usually interpreted as signifying a policy of aloofness or isolationism from world politics. However, we didn't always follow our first President's advice because it wasn't always practical to do so and because there were other forces working counter to it. Then, as now, we were part of the world of nations, and complete aloofness from international affairs was a physical as well as an economic impossibility.

Our desire for neutrality was based on sound and practical politics. We wanted to steer clear of any foreign entanglements that would embroil us in a costly war. As a young nation we had plenty to do at home. There was a vast continent that had to be spanned. There were rich mineral resources that had to be developed. There were new industries that had to be started. We wanted no outside interference with our "Manifest Destiny." In this, we were aided by the fact that we had two vast oceans separating us from the rest of the world, particularly the European world—where "power politics," national jealousies, racial hatreds, and religious intolerance, cen-

turies old, were continuously causing friction. We were fortunate also in the fact that our neighbors to the north and our neighbors to the south were undergoing their own brand of "Manifest Destiny." They had too much to do at home (even more than we) to want to hinder us in our progress. In fact, we were more concerned with their destiny than they with ours, and our relations with them were a complete reversal of our foreign policy towards the countries of the other hemisphere.

The second beacon of light that guided our foreign policy was, in practice, almost in direct opposition to that of the first. It grew out of the ideals that gave birth to our Republic and which we have ever since called "American." These ideals were the belief in freedom, independence, tolerance, and fair play, between nations as between individuals. From them grew our stand on freedom of the seas, which helped to get us into the war against England in 1812 and into the war with England and against Germany in 1917. Out of them developed our "open-door" policy in the Orient and our hatred for tyranny of any form whatsoever, which helped to get us into the war against Spain in 1898, and into the war against Japan, Germany, and Italy in 1941.

In addition, our cultural heritage, as well as our economic interests, linked us closer to some nations than to others. To England we owed our language and many of our customs and laws. Even after independence had been won, we were still great admirers of her customs, of her literature, and her laws. To France we owed a debt of gratitude for her spiritual inspiration in democracy and for her aid to us in winning the War of Independence.

Today we are no longer a separate entity. Although we are still separated from the rest of the world by two oceans, this separation is of little consequence—the radio and the airplane have seen to that. We are all part of one world and more people in this country realize it now than ever before. The future foreign policy of the United States will, therefore, of necessity depart from isolationism. However, it can and must be guided by the same ideals which have been the foundations of its greatness.

II. *Relations with Latin America.*

A. Specific Understandings to be Derived.

1. An understanding of the historical relationship between the United States and the countries to its south, together with a knowledge of those events in history that both helped and hindered amicable relations between them and us.
2. An understanding of the "Good Neighbor" policy and of its importance in cementing friendly relations in the Western hemisphere.

B. Pupil Activities.

Read in your text and reference books the pages dealing with Central and South America and the Caribbean. (See list of books at end of course outline and use library for additional reference material.)

Answer the following questions:

1. What is the major European heritage of most of South and Central America? What languages are spoken in the different countries? What is the principal religion?
2. List the names of the countries below the Rio Grande. What are the area and population of the five largest ones?
3. What was the Monroe Doctrine? What interpretation did Theodore Roosevelt give to it?

C. Home and Library Work.

Write a brief summary of the following:

1. "Jingoism" and the Spanish-American War
2. The Platt Amendment
3. "Dollar diplomacy" and the "Big Stick" Policy
4. American - Mexican Relations during World War I
5. United States Relations with Argentina during World War II
6. The Building of the Panama Canal
7. United States-Latin American Cultural Relations

III. *Relations with the Orient.*

A. Understandings to be Derived.

1. An understanding of the culture and peoples of the Orient, of their historical development, and of their relationship to Western civilization.

2. An understanding of the United States' foreign policy towards the Orient and of its effect on conditions at home and on the world at large.

B. Pupil Activities.

Read in your text and reference books the pages dealing with the Orient—China, Japan, Australia, India, Russia, East Indies, and the Philippines. Use library for additional reference readings.

Answer the following questions:

1. What is the population of Asia and of its adjacent islands? How does it compare with that of Europe? With that of the United States and Latin America?
2. What was the "Boxer Rebellion?"
3. What is meant by the "Open-Door" policy in connection with China?
4. Describe the present political situation in China. Give a brief summary of its evolution.
5. Do the same for Japan and India.
6. What has been the policy of the United States toward the Philippines?

C. Home and Library Work.

Write a brief summary of the following:

1. Oriental religions.
Brahmanism
Buddhism
Confucianism
Taoism
2. The Communists in China
3. American Fortifications in the Pacific
4. Oriental Immigration to the United States
5. American Economic Interests in the Orient

IV. *Relations with Europe.*

A. Understandings to be Derived.

1. An understanding of the forces that have drawn our country into world conflicts in spite of its traditional policy of isolationism.
2. A knowledge and understanding of the personalities linked to events of international importance.

B. Pupil Activities.

Review in your text and reference books pages dealing with American-European relations, as The Napoleonic Wars and The War of 1812; treaties with England; rela-

tions with France and other European countries.

Answer the following questions:

1. What were the chief causes of World War I? Of World War II?
2. Define "imperialism"; "power politics"; "balance of power."
3. What efforts toward world peace were made prior to World War I?
4. Compare Wilson's "Fourteen Points" with the Atlantic Charter.
6. What mistakes, if any, were committed at Versailles in 1919?
7. What were the principal weaknesses of the League of Nations?
8. What new economic and political ideologies sprang up in Europe during and after World War I?
9. What part did education, literature, and the movies play in fostering the love of peace in this country?
10. Define Lend-Lease. What new policy did it inaugurate?

C. Home and Library Work.

Write a brief summary of the following topics as they relate to our foreign policy and world peace.

1. Nationalism and sovereignty.
 2. Pan-Americanism.
 3. The Russian Revolution of 1917.
 4. The problem of reparations.
 5. Inter-Allied debts and international relations.
 6. The World Court.
 7. The Nazi revolution in Germany.
 8. The Spanish Civil War.
 9. Fascism in Italy.
 10. The Popular Front in France.
 11. The Hull Reciprocal Trade Program.
 12. The Arms Embargo Act and Its Repeal.
 13. The Fortification of Guam.
 14. United States War Aims.
- D. Write a brief summary of the part played by the persons listed below regarding American World relations.
1. Franklin D. Roosevelt
 2. Cordell Hull
 3. Wendell Willkie
 4. Henry Wallace
 5. Herbert Hoover
 6. Henry Stimson
 7. Elihu Root

8. Woodrow Wilson
9. Winston Churchill
10. Lloyd George
11. Neville Chamberlain
12. Georges Clemenceau
13. Aristide Briand
14. Nikolai Lenin
15. Chiang Kai-chek
16. Mahatma Gandhi

V. Isolationism vs. Cooperation

A. Specific Understandings to be Derived.

1. An understanding of the economic and political ideologies current today and of their role in international relations.
2. An understanding that the forces that tend to cause wars can be combated successfully only if all nations will plan and work cooperatively towards peace.

B. Pupil Activities.

Read in your textbooks the pages dealing with the events following World War II. Use library reference books and magazines for additional background readings.

Answer the following questions:

1. Describe the organization and the principal bodies of the United Nations.
2. Discuss the *veto* provision and its use by Russia.
3. What are the basic differences between the economic and political philosophies of Russia and of the Western Democracies?
4. What is the Cominform?
5. Discuss the Labor Government of England.
6. What new problem does atomic energy place before the United States?
7. What is the Marshall plan?
8. Describe the United States foreign policy in the Orient since the end of World War II.
9. What part can education play in promoting world peace?

C. Related Work—Home, Class, and Library.

Write a brief summary of the following topics as they relate to the foreign policy of the United States and world peace:

1. The Dumbarton Oaks Conference
2. The Chicago Aviation Conference
3. The Repatriation of Displaced Persons

4. The Yalta Conference
5. The San Francisco Conference
6. The Potsdam Agreement
7. The Truman Doctrine
8. The Independence of India and Pakistan
9. The Palestine Issue and the new Israel State
10. The Atom Bomb at Bikini
11. The Dutch and Indonesia
12. International Trade and Tariffs
13. The Policies of MacArthur in Japan
14. The Berlin Blockade
15. The Mindszenty Trial
16. The Excommunication of Communists
17. International Cartels
18. Russian Satellites Since the End of World War II
19. A "United States of Europe"

20. A World Government
 21. Atomic Energy and World Peace
- E. Write a brief summary of the part played in world relations by the persons listed below.
1. George C. Marshall
 2. Harry S. Truman
 3. John Foster Dulles
 4. Clement Atlee
 5. Arthur Vandenberg
 6. Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru
 7. Marshall Tito
 8. Dean Acheson
 9. Douglas MacArthur
 10. Robert A. Taft
 11. Ralph Bunche

¹The *Introduction* is an adaptation from H. M. Boodish, *Our Industrial Age*. (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1949), pp. 312-315.

The Persistence of Physical Type

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The persistence of physical types of mankind has been a source of controversy between anthropologists and historians. The anthropologists accept it as a maxim of their discipline, although its causes have never been explained satisfactorily. Since the course of a human group having a distinct physical type has not been followed through a long historical period, the historians have doubted the axiomatic character of the idea because of certain inherent difficulties. Recent studies, however, have gone far to explain the persistence of type by solving the currents of population which maintain human type.

I

The historian has doubts about the persistence of type on two scores. The first is a disbelief that it can be maintained in the face of constant migrations and conquests and the subsequent intermarriage of peoples brought into contact with each other. The other is the lack of clear-cut racial lines in Europe, a lack which adds disbelief to the impression produced by movements of peoples.

The reader will recall, if he has read history even occasionally, that frequent migrations have crossed Europe over the centuries, reaching even that most protected of countries, England. Celts, Romans, Anglo-Saxons, Danes and Normans, not to mention pre-historic peoples, have swept into England. The mixing of all these races, one might expect, would have produced a standard physical type. If the invading Anglo-Saxons did actually drive out or destroy the previous population from sea to sea, ought the anthropologists to insist that large elements of the present British population are derived from the pre-historic and pre-Saxon people?

If this is true about England, what about the continent of Europe itself? Italy, for instance, has seen invaders and settlers from not merely the Mediterranean peoples but even from northern Europe. How is it possible that anything like permanent physical types could be maintained against these constant shocks of population change?

In their opinion, the heterogeneity of type

is proved by the difficulty of finding samples of pure racial types. Where are the areas of pure Nordic, or of Alpine, or even (though this is not so hard to find) of Mediterranean type? Indeed the designation of an area as of a single race is a statistical concept: more people have the head-shape, the color of eyes and hair, and about the proper height for one race than for the others, but relatively few have all the characteristics of even the most common race.

On the other hand, if the mixing of races is as thorough as might appear, then the surprising thing is that there should be more than one type left in Europe. Should not the constant intermarriage of the last ten thousand years have produced a single European race?

Local types appear frequently in that continent. The terms, Norman, Yorkshireman, Sicilian, and Tyrolese, to mention only a few examples, often bring to mind particular physical characteristics. To those who have a more intimate acquaintance with European regions, the names of even small localities recall a special type or even types of persons.

Some of these local types appear to observers to be strikingly like ancient races of Europe. The gigantic Borreby man, so well known to us in the persons of New York police, is paralleled by persons who resemble reconstructions of the earliest of prehistoric men. If the type does not persist how can these prehistoric types preserve their characteristics over the centuries?

No wonder the historians are puzzled. Their problem, and that of others as well, is why these physical types persist in localities where-as pure races are difficult to find.

II

The presumption seems to be that originally there were relatively pure races which have been mixed by conquest and settlement. Such a process can be seen in the case of white and Negro in this country.

Here the dominant members of the white group and some others had children by the Negroes and produced a sizeable number of mulattoes even though the practice was frowned upon by the group that did it. A ruling class nearly always feels that it is not bound by the rules which it sets up.

The existence of a very dominant ruling class

tends to mixing of physical types. Because of the prominence of the group, the practice bulks large in history, but since the class is necessarily small the results upon population are sharply limited. For our purposes the more important problem is the action and attitudes of the mass of ordinary and subordinate people in village and city.

The persistence of physical type is essentially a biological problem related closely to marriage customs. If marriage is limited to certain groups which have a definite physical type, that type obviously will be preserved over the centuries and in even large areas. The same pattern might result if persons could exercise choice in mating and had the same preferences in regard to mates.

Marriage is nearly always limited by custom, but custom allows a certain amount of choice. People marry largely within their own church group or in related groups of churches. They marry within national origin groups in this country. They marry also largely within income groups. Within these groups, however, there is apt to be a choice of different physical types.

Even where parents choose mates for their children there is still a choice on the part of the parents. The chances are that in large part the parents would be attracted to the same physical characteristics as the children, although their ideas on matters of temperament and interests might be much different.

Recent research has demonstrated that persons do have distinct preferences for mates of similar characteristics, an attribute termed assortative mating. The tall tend to marry the tall, and the short prefer short mates. Indeed, the short husband and the tall wife are so infrequent as to be considered a proper element of comedy. The combination of blond and brunette before the altar always evokes comment. The apparent similarity of so many married couples is no illusion.

III

Such assortative mating would tend to preserve physical type directly by the marriage of persons of like characteristics and indirectly by encouraging the atypical to migrate, particularly from the smaller places. This is a topic which needs study, but the logic of the situa-

tion suggests an obvious answer.

In even a small place the man of unusual physique is generally at liberty to choose among the girls available to him. If he had the choice between girls of an atypical type different from his own and girls of ordinary physical characteristics in the place, he would probably choose the latter. Thus the atypical girls, unless they find mates similar to themselves, would have difficulty in marrying in the neighborhood and would be encouraged to migrate by the situation.

The operation of these forces would emphasize the dominant type or types within the village or neighborhood since the unusual types would tend to be trimmed off by the process. The trimming process would be either of spinsterhood or migration to more hospitable localities.

The city would probably be attractive to the atypical woman, and, it is well known, women do migrate in larger numbers to the cities than do men. Of course the greater opportunities for work are an important factor in the migration. In the medieval German cities, many girls served as maids until they could get dowries large enough to make themselves attractive to boys of their native villages, but considerable numbers never returned permanently to these villages.

The city is apparently also attractive to the atypical because the barriers to marriage, social, religious or physical, are not so formidable as in the village. This is the result of less pressure from neighbors and, indeed, of less knowledge of others' affairs in the larger places. The burgesses were used to more varieties of people and did not resent alien or unusual persons to the same degree as the villagers. Many city activities emphasize mental and other non-physical interests, which recent research has shown are also factors in assortative mating.

If city people pay less or little attention to physical type in assortative mating, it might be a great melting pot of human types and thus reduce humanity to a common type. Since cities have contained an ever larger proportion of humanity, the chances of developing such a common denominator would seem to be large.

IV

The city, if it is really a melting pot of phys-

ical types, would be effective in standardizing human type only if it replaced its own population as fast or faster than the villages which tend to preserve type. For several relatively simple reasons this is not the case.

The smaller places in general have more men than women inhabitants. The sex ratio (number of men to one hundred women) normally declines with the increasing size of cities. A part of this is probably the result of heavy female migration to the cities. Perhaps as a corollary to this the percentage of married persons in the villages is higher than in cities and gets progressively less with cities of greater size. In the smaller places marriage is naturally earlier.

Under these circumstances, as we should expect, the birthrate is higher in the smaller places than in the larger. Furthermore until recently the infant mortality of the villages has been less, which further increased their numerical advantage in children. Cities of over 100,000 today often produce only about three-fifths of the children necessary to replace their population, while the most prolific of our rural states have twice the number necessary to maintain their population.

The stream of migration from the villages to the cities must be both large and continuous to keep the city population growing as it has been increasing in the last century. The population then is dying in precisely the places where physical types might be expected to mix and thus the chances of standardization of physical characteristics decline with increasing urbanization.

Of course, before the nineteenth century, the population of urban centers was not nearly so large as it has grown recently. However, even then population was hardly replacing itself in the cities of five to ten thousands, since the population in the country as a whole was increasing at a very slow rate. Furthermore, those cities probably tended to mix physical types at a much slower rate than our modern cities since social class was a more important factor among them than among us.

The operation of population movements would intensify a particular physical type in the small villages over the centuries if the villages were not disturbed. The only obvious

influence changing the type would be wholesale displacement by invasion and settlement by hostile forces. This happens less frequently than might be expected from the statements of early chroniclers and other writers.

In writing, the chroniclers often have in mind only the ruling class and their immediate followers. Thus, when they speak of displacement or annihilation of people, they refer merely to the ruling class which is displaced by another conquering group. The victors often replace the losers as the dominant class. This happened at the time of the Norman Conquest: the process is clearly portrayed in the data of Domesday Book. In spite of a succession of overlords, the fellahin of Egypt are said to resemble closely the picture of peasants on ancient monuments. Only recently have really effective techniques for liquidating unwanted people been perfected.

The pattern of relationship between the ruling class and the ruled is often continued through many changes of rulers. The submerged people owed their lords regular services and payments. Until recently, they had no national and little racial feeling. They had less loyalty to the ruling class so that the transition from one ruler to another evoked neither enthusiasm nor dislike.

The existence of a special physical type persisting as a subject group can be traced in the case of the short, dark people of England who are descendants apparently of an early Mediterranean folk which settled in the island centuries before the time of Christ. From an early date they had menial duties connected primarily with the animals which were different later from the plowing obligations of the Anglo-Saxon serfs. Even when they lived within the same villages as the latter, they maintained their social separateness.

In so far as there were physical differences between the ruled and the dominant class, the social difference would tend to preserve the type except for some mating of the kind already mentioned. However, a ruling class is often a heterogeneous group, held together by common qualities of boldness and military skill. Hitler's collection of followers, in spite of lip

service to a Nordic ideal, was a singularly motley group. Here also the more mixed group is doomed to extinction as it is destroyed or replaced by another "master class" which has proved itself stronger or more adaptable.

V

On the basis of the evidence presented above, it seems the present population currents move toward more, rather than less, development of local and regional physical types. This suggests that the United States may expect to have more marked physical characteristics in the future to parallel the dialectal and social differences already established in many regions.

For the most part, the frontier in this country was settled by a mixed group which had little physical similarity. Exceptions exist, as when racial groups such as German or Scandinavian migrants dominated an area. The result was something like an American type, having few physical characteristics which were evident after effects of sun or wind had disappeared. As mentioned before there were differences of habits and dialect. Possibly we have reached the maximum of physical standardization in this country. There are probably more differences among the English today than among Americans of English descent.

This assumes that the present pattern of villages and cities in the United States is relatively permanent and that the population currents will emphasize here as in Europe local physical types. Of course, if the industrialization of the countryside continues, the present farm and village population may be so disturbed that a new pattern of population may be established. Its results are hardly foreseeable now.

In any case, as long as there is feeling in regard to cultural, social, or physical characteristics, it will cause people to mate with others of similar characteristics. These local types are apt to become more, rather than less marked even in the United States, but the differentiation and development will probably require several more generations, if not centuries, before we have in this country the specialization of physical type apparent in Europe.

Television Faces Society

BENJAMIN ROWE

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Modern society is admittedly too complex for its own good. It refuses to face the ethical problems of its future survival and yet with apparent effortlessness produces miraculous technological advances. Such confusion has caused a general rash of neuroses and harmful mental conditions. Man can only look upon the average and the normal, the simple tenets of simple living conditions; his own world is one of frenzy and rush. And as his civilization has advanced, man has been deprived of his sense of balance; but since he is, after all, gifted with some reason, he has desperately attempted to hold fast to his self-esteem, his individuality and his meager sense of security.

In this world, human achievement is evaluated in terms of social significance, and upon such recapitulations there is dependent not only the ultimate value of all achievement, but also its importance to the community.

Yet, the individual never ceases to amaze us. Seemingly he rises above all exterior weaknesses in his quest for a better world. The human being is, in truth, a frail creature. His mind is an intricate instrument and requires constant regenerations. Some people find that regeneration in work and some in avocational activity. However, for the vast majority, all cravings and weaknesses fall into common patterns, and, to paraphrase Aristotle, an emotional release must purge man of them. He must laugh and sometimes cry in order to eliminate debilitating emotional factors. It was, of course, Aristotle who classified "man as a social animal" and this is not merely the *bon mot* of a great empirical mind. It is through his dependence on others that man is able to advance, and on the basis of his social experiences, he forms his pattern for living. Thus, this statement is, in a way, the touchstone of modern civilization: the key to survival or the fuse to destruction.

Such an introduction may seem pretentious. Television is not the most important achievement of this age. Its limitations are enormous, its flaws eagerly pounced upon. Though its

value is controversial, it brings with it no threat of doom. There are those who maintain a position of disgust, and others who view it with primitive awe. Few would call it an uplifting art; fewer still the number who could justify it as an art form of any kind. No Einstein, Blackett or Oppenheimer has yet appeared with a chemical equation to clarify its wonderful elements. It is doubtful that anyone will appear with such a solution. Neither science nor the video devotee can explain its peculiar grasp on modern living. To the devotee, it is chiefly a medium of amusement, a symbol of economic fortune more than a thing of culture. It is a compound of the highest skill of electronic science and of ever-erratic public reaction.

However, any disdain for the new medium is not based upon its mongrel background. The objectors are neither intolerant nor un-receptive; they are cautious. They will one day, in all probability, be the very ones who will lead video out of infancy and into more fruitful existence.

Up to the present, television has developed significance only as a disseminator of entertainment. That is, of course, what it was developed for and what, primarily, it must always be considered to be. However the entertainment industry is outstanding in American life and, in this field, television looms as a potential primary force. Already it has disrupted the giant three, radio, films and the theatre, taking from each some of the best and some of the worst qualities. Nevertheless, its rapid growth as an industry increases considerably its importance as a power in American life.

Television has come into a troubled world. The modern American must be prepared not only to fight off the toxic elements of his own political system but to gird his loins for the almost inevitable conflicts of divergent philosophies. His struggle is one of taxing both the intellect and his basic convictions, for modern society hinges not only upon loving one's

(Continued on page 219)

Topic T7. English Colonies: New England

STUDY OUTLINE

1. Early English Attempts at Settlement: Gosnold; Popham Colony in Maine
2. Plymouth Colony
 - a. Definition of Separatists; Pilgrims in England and Holland; Voyage of Mayflower
 - b. The settlement; Mayflower Compact; first winter; government; religion; fisheries; Indian relations
 - c. Later slow development of colony; representative government established
 - d. Part of Massachusetts, 1691
3. Massachusetts Bay Colony
 - a. Definition of Puritans; straits of Non-conformists in England, 1606-1640
 - b. Organization of Massachusetts Bay Company; terms of charter; land grant, government, &c.
 - c. Transfer of company to New England and Great Migration of 1630
 - d. Restriction of political power to church members; attitude toward religious dissenters
 - e. Establishment of representative government; town government
 - f. Relations to England to 1650; controversy with England, 1664-1683; forfeiture of charter, 1684
4. Connecticut
 - a. River towns on Connecticut River: Windsor, Hartford, Wethersfield; first federal government in America
 - b. Saybrook Colony; New Haven Colony—John Davenport; religious character of government
 - c. Royal charter of 1662; union under a government almost republican
5. Rhode Island
 - a. Roger Williams: remarkable theory of separation of church and state; reasons for exile from Massachusetts; founding of the colony at Providence
 - b. Anne Hutchinson and colony of Rhode Island
 - c. Early confusions and conflicts of authority; Indian relations
 - d. Charter of 1663, similar to that of Connecticut
6. New Hampshire and Maine
 - a. Early attempts at settlement; grants to Mason and Gorges; settlement at Dover, 1623
 - b. Under control of Massachusetts; New Hampshire from 1641, Maine from 1652
 - c. New Hampshire separated from Massachusetts, 1679; becomes a royal province
 - d. Maine continues part of Massachusetts by purchase from Gorges heirs
7. New England Confederation
 - a. Reasons for formation; colonies admitted; form of government
 - b. Acts: Indian affairs; church action; Quakers; influence of Massachusetts
8. Dominion of New England: Attempt of English Government to bring several colonies under one government; unpopularity of Governor Andros; effects of British Revolution of 1688-89 upon New England
9. New England Life
 - a. Classes of population; few large estates; little social difference; apprentices
 - b. Industry: agriculture; fisheries; fur trade; foreign and colonial commerce; ship building and naval stores; manufactures
 - c. Religion: significance in New England life; Puritanism; forms of church government; blue laws; persecution of dissenters
 - d. Education: intellectual character of early settlers; common school system established; Harvard College (1636)
 - e. Codes of law

AIDS TO LEARNING

AUDIO-VISUAL

- The Thirteen Colonies and Their Settlement (26 slides). The Pageant of America Lantern Slides, by Yale University Press
- The Pilgrims as Real People (filmstrip). Society for Visual Education, Inc.
- The Pilgrims & Puritan Life (filmstrip). Pictorial Events
- Early Settlers of New England (16 mm. sound film, 11 min.; also in filmstrip). Encyclopedia Britannica Films, Inc.
- Pilgrims. Puritans. (Each 36 min.; 16 mm. silent films) (Chronicles of America Photoplays). Yale University Press

HISTORIES

- C. M. Andrews, *Colonial Self-Government*; L. G. Tyler, *England in America*, (The American Nation, vols. 4, 5)
- C. M. Andrews, *The Fathers of New England* (The Chronicles of America, vol. 6)
- C. M. Andrews, *The Colonial Period* (Home University Library)
- C. L. Becker, *Beginnings of the American People* (Riverside History of the United States, vol. 1)
- G. P. Fisher, *The Colonial Era* (American History series)
- M. W. Jernegan, *The American Colonies* (Epochs of American History)
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- C. Wissler, C. L. Skinner, W. Wood, *Adventurers in the Wilderness* (The Pageant of America, vol. 1)
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- J. T. Adams, *Album of American History*, I, and *The Founding of New England*; G. L. Archer, *Mayflower Heroes and With Axe and Musket at Plymouth*; G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, I; *Cambridge Modern History*, VII; E. Channing, *History of the United States*, I, II; S. A. Drake, *The Making of New England*; A. M. Earle, *The Sabbath in Puritan New England*; E. Eggleston, *The Beginners of a Nation and The Transit of Civilization from England to America in the Seventeenth Century*; J. Fiske, *The Beginnings of New England and New France and New England*; W. E. Griffis, *Young People's History of the Pilgrims*; O. W. Hall-Quest, *How the Pilgrims Came to Plymouth*; S. E. Morison, *Builders of the Bay Colony*; E. Singmaster, *The Book of the Colonies*; R. G. Usher, *The Pilgrims and Their History*

Biographies: E. Easton, *Roger Williams, Prophet and Pioneer*; T. Jenks, *Myles Standish*. For lives of famous Americans, see Dictionary of American Biography

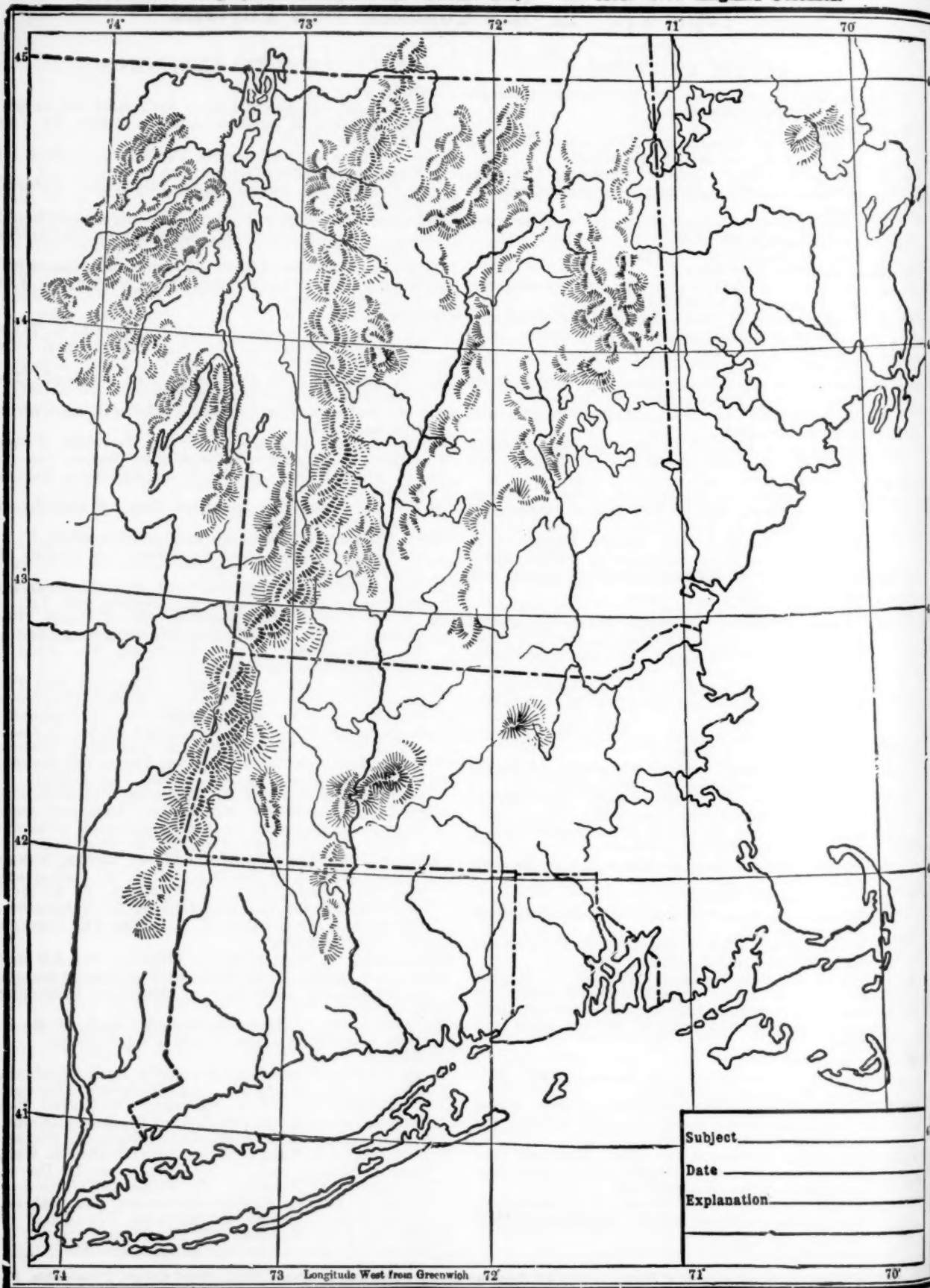
ATLASES

Harper's Atlas of American History; C. L. & E. H. Lord, *Historical Atlas of the United States*

STORIES

- J. G. Austin, *Standish of Standish*; R. H. Barbour, *Giles of the Mayflower and Metipom's Hostage*; L. Barksdale, *First Thanksgiving*; H. V. Coryell, *The Scalp Hunters*; B. M. Dix, *Soldier Rigdale*; J. Eaton, *Lone Journey*; R. L. Field, *Calico Bush*; E. Forbes, *Paradise*; E. R. Gaggin, *Down Rytton Water*; R. Hall, *Boys of Scrooby and The Golden Arrow*; M. Hayes, *Wampum and Sixpence*; E. Knipe, *A Mayflower Maid*; L. Lenski, *Puritan Adventure*; W. Lothrop, *Black River Captive*; B. Mathews, *The Quest of Liberty*; E. L. Meadowcroft, *The First Year*; E. S. Miers, *Valley in Arms*; G. Robinson, *Fox Fire*; G. Z.

¹ This is the seventh of a series of History Topics for American History, prepared by Morris Wolf, Girard College, Philadelphia, Pa.

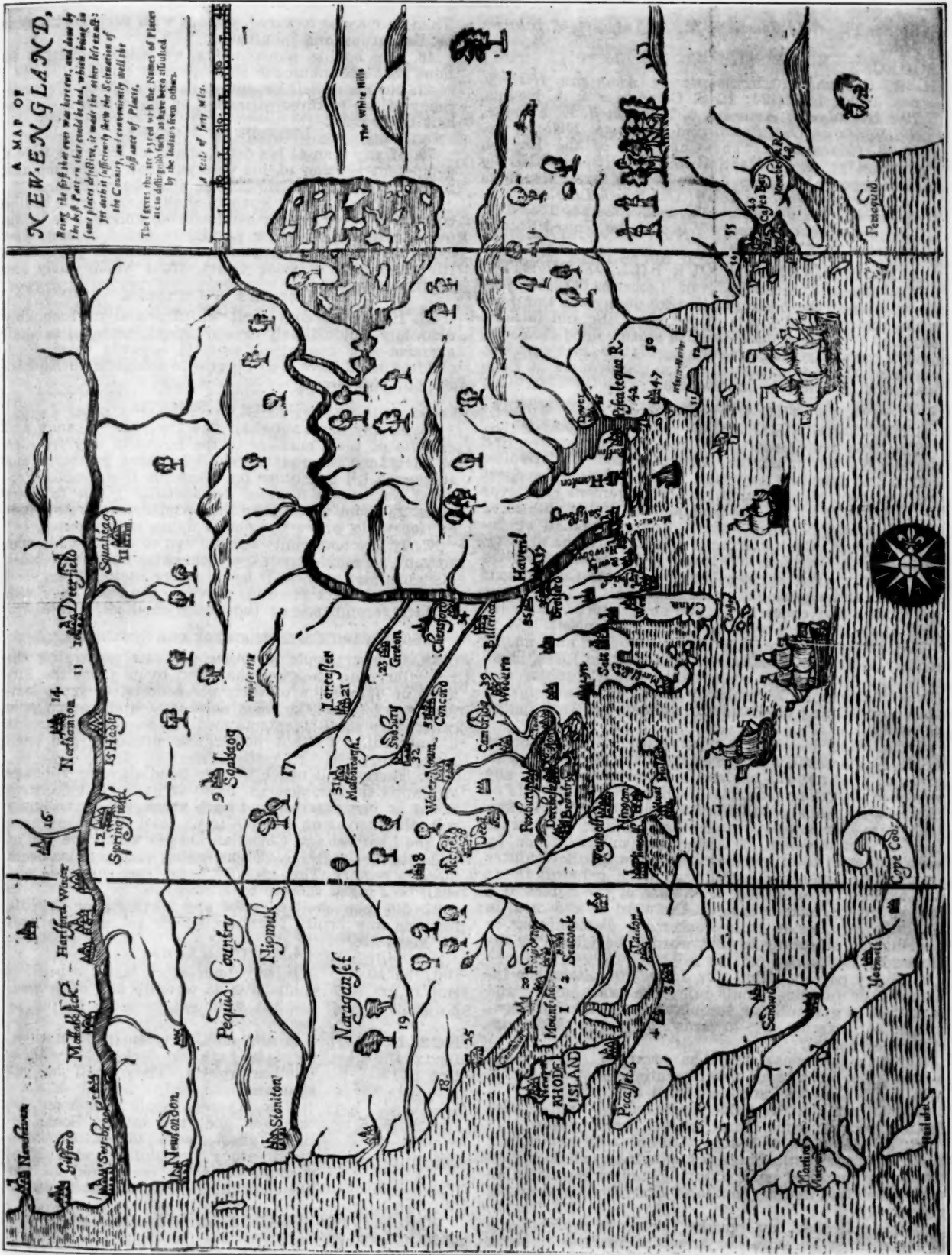


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MAP STUDY FOR TOPIC T7. LAND GRANTS AND NEW ENGLAND SETTLEMENTS

Mark the land grants and principal settlements. Show the frontier line of 1715. Bound and label the various colonies.



This quaint map from Hubbard's, "A Narrative of the Troubles With the Indians in New England," was published at Boston, in 1677. The legend on the map states that it was the first map of New England engraved in America. Note the coastline, particularly Cape Cod and Narragansett Bay; the rivers, particularly the Merrimack and the Connecticut; the location of principal settlements and of Indian tribes. Places with figures annexed are those which had been attacked by the Indians. (From the copy in the Historical Society of Pennsylvania.) How many of the settlements still appear as communities on our automobile road maps?

Stone, *The Cold Journey*; M. A. Taggart, *A Pilgrim Maid*

SOURCES

H. S. Commager, *Documents of American History*, nos. 10-13, 16-21, 24; H. S. Commager & A. Nevins, *The Heritage of America*, 6, 7, 9, 11; S. E. Forman, *Sidelights on Our Social and Economic History*, pp. 10-13 (Macaulay's "The Character of the English Puritan"); A. B. Hart, *American History Told by Contemporaries*, I, chs. 14-21; D. S. Muzzey, *Readings in American History*, 13-16; *Old South Leaflets*, 7, 8, 49-55, 66, 67, 93, 100, 110, 142, 153-154, 164, 169, 176; Veterans of Foreign Wars of the United States, *America*, II ("Colonization")

A FORERUNNER OF OUR BILL OF RIGHTS

The Massachusetts Body of Liberties (1641) preserves one of the best epitomes we possess of the principles and political ideals of the New England fathers. Much of it is based upon English statutes and charters; part is drawn from the Mosaic legislation, and part is a result of their experiences as non-conformists in England, and as colonists in America.

A COPPIE OF THE LIBERTIES OF THE MASSACHUSETTS COLONIE IN NEW ENGLAND

The free fruition of such liberties Immunities and priveledges as humanitie, Civillitie, and Christianitie call for as due to every man in his place and proportion; without impeachment and Infringement hath ever bene and ever will be the tranquillitie and Stabilitie of Churches and Commonwealths. And the deniall or deprivation thereof, the disturbance if not the ruine of both. We hould it therefore our dutie and safetie whilst we are about the further establishing of this Government to collect and expresse all such freedoms as for present we foresee may concerne us, and our posteritie after us, And to ratify them with our sollemne consent.

Wee doe therefore this day religiously and unanimously decree and confirme these following Rites, liberties, and priveledges concerning our Churches, and Civill State to be respectively impartiallie and inviolably enjoyed and observed throughout our Jurisdiction for ever.

1. No mans life shall be taken away, no mans honour or good name shall be stayned, no mans person shall be arested, restrayned, banished, dismembred, nor any wayes punished, no man shall be deprived of his wife or children, no mans goods or estaite shall be taken away from him, nor any way indammaged under Colour of law, or Countenance of Authoritie, unlesse it be by vertue or equitie of some expresse law of the Country warranting the same, established by a generall Court and sufficiently published, or in case of the defect of a law in any particular case by the word of god. And in Capitall cases, or in cases concerning dismembring or banishment, according to that word to be judged by the Generall Court.

2. Every person within this Jurisdiction, whether Inhabitant or forreiner shall enjoy the same justice and law, that is generall for the plantation, which we constitute and execute one towards another, without partialitie or delay.

9. No monopolies shall be granted or allowed amongst us, but of such new Inventions that are profitable to the Countrie, and that for a short time.

42. No man shall be twice sentenced by Civill Justice for one and the same Crime, offence, or Trespasse.

43. No man shall be beaten with above 40 stripes, nor shall any true gentleman, nor any man equall to a gentleman be punished with whipping, unless his crime be very shamefull, and his course of life vitious and profligate.

45. No man shall be forced by Torture to confesse any Crime against himselfe nor any other unlesse it be in some Capitall case where he is first fullie convicted by cleare and sufficient evidence to be guilty, After which if the cause be of that nature, That it is very apparent there be other conspiratours, or confederates with him,

Then he may be tortured, yet not with such Tortures as be Barbarous and inhumane.

46. For bodilie punishments we allow amongst us none that are inhumane Barbarous or cruell.

47. No man shall be put to death without the testimony of two or three witnesses, or that which is equivalent there unto.

LIBERTIES OF WOMEN.

79. If any man at his death shall not leave his wife a competent portion of his estaite, upon just complaint made to the Generall Court she shall be relieved.

80. Everie married woeman shall be free from bodilie correction or stripes by her husband, unlesse it be in his owne defence upon her assault. If there be any just cause of correction complaint shall be made to Authoritie assembled in some Court, from which onely she shall receive it.

LIBERTIES OF CHILDREN.

83. If any parents shall wilfullie and unreasonably deny any childe timely or convenient marriage, or shall exercise any unnaturall severitie towards them, Such children shall have free libertie to complain to Authoritie for redresse.

LIBERTIES OF SERVANTS

85. If any servants shall flee from the Tiranny and crueltie of their masters to the howse of any freeman of the same Towne, they shall be there protected and susteyned till due order be taken for their relife. Provided due notice thereof be speedily given to their maisters from whom they fled. And the next Assistant or Constable where the partie flying is harboured.

87. If any man smite out the eye or tooth of his man servant, or maid servant, or otherwise mayme or much disfigure him, unlesse it be by meere casualtie, he shall let them goe free from his service. And shall have such further recompense as the Court shall allow him.

LIBERTIES OF FORREINERS AND STRANGERS.

89. If any people of other Nations professing the true Christian Religion shall flee to us from the Tiranny or oppression of their persecutors, or from famine, warres, or the like necessary and compulsarie cause, they shall be entertayned and succoured amongst us, according to that power and prudence god shall give us.

91. There shall never be any bond slaverie villinage or Captivitie amongst us, unles it be lawfull Captives taken in just warres, and such strangers as willingly selle themselves or are sold to us. And these shall have all the liberties and Christian usages which the law of god established in Israell concerning such persons doeth morally require. This exempts none from servitude who shall be Judged thereto by Authoritie.

92. No man shall exercise any Tirranny or Crueltie towards any brute Creature which are usuallie kept for mans use.

94. CAPITALL LAWS

Dut. 13.6.10

Dut. 17.2.6

Ex. 22.20

Ex. 22.18.

Lev. 20.27.

Dut. 18.10.

Lev. 24.15.16

If any man after legall conviction shall have or worship any other god, but the lord god, he shall be put to death.

If any man or woeman be a witch, (that is hath or consulteth with a familiar spirit), They shall be put to death.

If any person shall Blaspheme the name of god, the father, Soone or Holie ghost, with direct, expresse, presumptuous or high handed blasphemie, or shall curse god in the like manner, he shall be put to death.

Whitmore, *The Colonial Laws of Massachusetts*, etc., 33-57.

Classify the rights and privileges here enumerated according to their source, such as the Bible, English law and custom, colonial experience. Which of the rights would later be included in our Bill of Rights?

(Continued from page 214)

neighbors but on living with them. What can television do to further amicable relationships? Where can television stand in such a world? The material which follows is not the answer to these problems. It is only the barest of outlines. The surface of such a problem is hardly scratched and some time must necessarily pass before any attempt at synthesizing the question is attempted. Yet, undoubtedly, the world is gradually turning telegenic and more cognizant of television's ever-seeing eye. For video reaches its ultima as an observer, always impartial, sometimes even brutally realistic.

Recently, a New York station telecast the day's events with the aid of on-the-spot coverages and newsreel shots less than a day old. News and sporting events are fields in which video already excels, for it aptly captures the color and human qualities of such events.

To the child, the telecast provides not only amusement but it guides him to observe and to absorb information from actual happenings. Further, from the video screen he learns to recognize the fallible and the humorous aspects of life. Such observance is a maturing experience. In the same manner that one five-year-old was able to master proper batting stance from the television image, future five-year-olds may master some understanding of the workings of Congress and the government. One can imagine some precocious infant approaching a weary parent and innocently lisping in his ear: "What do you think of motion 6469B, the motion passed by the Security Council, . . . etc."

The child learns through mimicking his elders. His eyes are his central source of information, and his alertness, his learning ability and general mental disposition are influenced by the sights of his environment. It may well be the purpose of many future television transmissions to bring education to the home screen.

The varied experiments made by the industry have been well documented by numerous sources. The public is aware of experimental color television, telecasts of symphony orchestras in action, the opera and legitimate plays. Spontaneous audience reaction televises well, but the quiz show has never been more than a mild success. In the field of comedy, television has been termed the greatest training ground

for the comic since vaudeville. The entertainment future of the industry is bright and there is little reason for a deterioration of quality at so late a stage.

On the technological side, television techniques have vastly improved. There is continued need for more improvement, decreased cost, increased availability. Economically speaking, employment opportunities are increasing. Although production techniques are still limited, expansion in the industry is inevitable. The larger production units have begun a mass enlarging of production capacities and experimental development. While competition is high, the demand for sets is still smaller than was expected. The general production picture is still a sound one. There is much room for capable technicians and high salaries are being offered to those with originality and skill.

Furthermore, in the near future, it is expected that, with advanced techniques and standardized production, the field will continue as a consistently lucrative industry and as a source of great opportunity.

In 1949, there were over 300 transmission units in operation throughout the United States. The ultimate number of transmission stations will depend upon the ability of the industry to create feasible long-distance reception. There are in operation several networks linking the major cities of the nation. However, these cannot yet completely connect with each other. Attempts have been made to create stratosphere transmission units but, although highly publicized, these plans have recently either been reconsidered or completely discarded.

The radio and the film industry will profit from the competition of the developed medium. Already, the executives of the parent industry have been forced to look to their broadcasting laurels. Television has cut deep into radio audiences, Hooper ratings have fallen, and the continued upswing of video sales has forced radio to do some serious thinking about its future. Not that radio will ever disappear, but it is realized that radio must reformulate its intentions and keep a sharp competitive eye upon its offspring.

The motion picture industry, however, finds itself in a different position. Television, Hollywood has felt, endangers motion picture attend-

ance. So Hollywood has been notoriously slow to take cognizance of the medium's assets. Diminishing returns resulted in a mass wave of dismissals and an over-all salary decrease. Because of this, some of the discharged personnel have turned to specially-produced television films, and many capable production units have been formed. These television films are cut to transmission schedules and are seen only by video audiences. Since their inception, these "shorts" have increasingly improved in quality, dramatic power and consistency. They not only provide employment for those cast aside by Hollywood, but these pictures also open up new incentives for others to reap the rewards of television.

So "lusty an infant" (thus *Life* magazine recently described video), with its increasingly bright future, can provide background for much new economic expansion.

In educational circles, high authorities are seriously considering television as a classroom aid. Also, the radio, the legitimate stage, and the cinema are beginning to become more friendly to the new medium.

Political organizations were among the first to utilize television. The Republican National Convention was televised as early as 1940. These groups, as time passes, will be able to capitalize upon increased operational schedules and will perhaps be able to send telecasts of major political functions to all corners of the nation. Television, it is obvious, holds promise for the diffusion of ideology, both political and philosophical. Tomorrow, a stabilized medium will be able to wield great influence on American thought.

At present, the television industry is a curious mixture of the incredible and the incredulous. Radio, in the twenties was also, to a lesser degree, no more than this. Its technical defects were eliminated and today the thoughtful recognize that, although radio broadcasting lacks much, there has risen from its blare and bluster a fine record of public service and an ability to bring to the public much of real value and substance. Radio is depended upon for good music, some fine comedy, and much in the way of excellent news coverage.

Television is capable, as seen from many evidences, of reaching great heights. The confidence of the public and the business world is such as to make an optimistic picture a logical conclusion. From the evidence examined, there is little doubt of the following:

- (1) The most frequently used word to describe television at present is "potential." Little has been developed, for technique, programming and general approach of the medium can be called crude.
- (2) Television holds great economic opportunity. Experimental operations have been enough to convince capital and industrial circles of the secure background of this medium.
- (3) A very firm hold upon the imagination of the public has given the medium a running start towards success.

It might be well, in conclusion, to quote from two opposite sources. The first is the well known poet Ogden Nash, who included in his latest book of poems a piece called "I Spy":

Now elbow deep in middle age,
A viewer I'm of video,
And some of it is beautiful
And some of it is hideous.
Yet ask me to your house to view,
And I'll be there immediate,
For all the world is video,
And I the village videot.¹

In more serious vein, the widely respected Olin Downes of the *New York Times* wrote, after viewing Arturo Toscanini conduct the Beethoven Ninth Symphony: "We are at the beginning now of a vast new era of scientific development, which will affect all living. . . . Television will bring visual as well as audible means nearer to people than has ever before happened in history." He added in apt summary this fragment of poetry: "The seen is proved by the unseen and the unseen is proved by the seen."

¹ Copyright 1949 by Ogden Nash. From *The New Yorker*.

The National Liberal Party in Prussia (1866 - 1883)

GLENN WEAVER

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Political parties, unlike Minerva, do not spring fullgrown from the heads of their creators. Long before National liberalism took the form of an organized political group in Prussia, the ideals for which the party stood had been championed by a considerable segment of the prosperous Prussian upper middle class.

Prussian liberalism before 1866 had had a long and honorable history which dated from the War of Liberation. With the end of Napoleonic influence, considerable progress was made in the line of liberal reforms, and in various parts of the Germanies, with varying degrees of sincerity, kings and princes had agreed to the granting of liberal constitutions and to the appointing of liberal ministries. Because of Austrian pressure upon the rulers, however, most of these promised reforms failed to materialize, and the liberals were forced to restate their aims and objectives in the Revolution of 1848.

In the Frankfort Assembly (1848) liberalism failed to win the anticipated support—despite the fact that the 568 delegates (all German states being represented) were largely middle-class “intellectuals”—for a question of greater popularity than liberalism, namely, nationalism, usurped the place of prominence on the Assembly’s agenda. Furthermore, when it was seen that neither Prussia nor Austria would give full approval of the “Professors’ Parliament,” the Assembly collapsed.¹ Although the convention failed to achieve its original purpose, its political and intellectual consequences were far-reaching, for it was, other than the Confederation of the Rhine, the first realization of national unity; it symbolized the compromise between traditional monarchy and bourgeois liberalism so essential to German unity; it marked the transfer of liberal political leadership from the lower middle class to the upper

middle class—a group which had, at first, been lukewarm in the revolutionary spirit; and, finally, the adverse criticism which the Assembly received caused the masses to lose interest in representative institutions.²

From the Assembly resulted but one triumph for Prussian liberalism—if such it may be called—the constitution of 1850, which was granted by the king with the approval of the Junker aristocracy as an unavoidable concession to the spirit of the times. The constitution guaranteed personal liberties but provided for a bicameral legislature elected according to a three-class system, whereby, for voting purposes, the electorate was divided according to the amount paid annually in taxes.³ Each class had equal representation in the electoral college, but the interests of the third class could easily be defeated by a coalition in which the first two classes (representing largely the aristocracy and the upper middle class) could outvote the third. This situation prevailed because the social and political affinities of the upper middle class were—due to incomes, occasionally family ties, and government service—with the aristocracy rather than with the lower middle class.

Closely related to these political developments was the industrial and commercial progress of Prussia. The decades prior to 1850 may be regarded as ones of “apprenticeship” to England and the Netherlands. The period was marked by many business failures, but, on the other hand, by the growth of a small number of sizeable family fortunes, further separating the upper and lower middle classes. After 1850, because of the healthful effect of the Zollverein upon German commerce, and because of the Prussian legislation forbidding industrial strikes, commerce and industry grew with amazing rapidity. The second half of the century was also marked by the growth of the joint stock companies and by the rise of the

Prussian "captains of industry."⁴

In 1858, "Big Business" entered German political life when the first Economic Congress met at Gotha. To this informal congress came delegates from all the German states. Spokesmen for banking, shipping, trade and industry met to discuss possible legislation for the furtherance of their respective interests. The representatives, known by their opponents (the aristocracy as well as the proletariat) as the "advocates of Manchesterdom" made recommendations to the diets. The fact that many of the suggestions were carried out by the legislative bodies—even by the Prussian Diet—is certain evidence that the upper middle class was coming to be recognized as an important political element.⁵

Despite these evidences of divergent paths being followed by upper and lower middle-class liberals, some outward appearance of liberal unity was maintained by a compromise on the part of the genuine democrats. At times the sacrifice of principles went so far as to allow cooperation with the Conservatives in combating the left-wing radicals, who were a constant cause of embarrassment to the liberals. If it will be remembered that the liberals held the principle of national unity in high regard, the cooperation with the Conservatives will not be regarded as a complete betrayal. Rather, it would indicate that the liberals had made their choice between the extremes of radicalism and conservatism.⁶

Thus, while internally divided, middle-class liberalism for some time outwardly maintained the appearance of unity. In 1862 came the real test, when King William I introduced his Army Bill to the Parliament. The bill was to provide huge appropriations for military expenditures as well as for the extension of the terms of military service. The measure met with hostility in the lower house. The middle-class representatives, who objected to extended military service on practical economic grounds, as well as from a fear of rising Junker militarism, even demanded both a budget for defense lower than that of 1862 and a shortening of the term of military service from three to two years. The middle class, for the time, rallied behind the radicals (left-wing Progressives or *Fortschritt* group) and argued that the increased term of

military service would work a hardship upon commercial operators, and that an enlarged army would only strengthen the forces of reaction. Having met such violent opposition to the proposed measure, William, in anger, prorogued the lower house.⁷

In the following election, William received a further setback, for the lower house was flooded with an increased number of liberals. Faced with total defeat, William was forced to rely upon trickery to achieve his purpose. Making an appeal to the better natures of the legislators, he asked for an appropriation to maintain an augmented army for one year. The unsuspecting liberals granted the favor, but soon found that William was creating new permanent regiments. As these new regiments were to be officered by the Junkers, and since the progressives had renewed their agitation for both the abolition of Junker privilege and a reform of the House of Lords, the Conservatives gave William full support and even accepted an increased land tax without murmur.

Realizing that William had outwitted them, the lower house demanded a reading of the budget. Incensed by the obstinacy of the liberals, William made a half-hearted threat to abdicate, which, to his chagrin, was dispassionately received. Painful as was the situation, the day was not lost for William. To his rescue came Otto von Bismarck, a Junker reactionary with an intense dislike for the middle class and with a passionate devotion to the king and to the *status quo*. When Bismarck in 1862 became President of the Council of Ministers he attempted to intimidate the lower house into accepting his arguments that the king could authorize expenditures without the consent of the legislature.

As the lower house remained adamant, Bismarck sought grounds for a war to prove the necessity of an enlarged army. Finding an almost made-to-order situation in Schleswig-Holstein and using the settlement of a dynastic question as his pretext, Bismarck duped Austria into declaring war on Denmark, which, after a brief resistance, surrendered. After the spoils had been shared by the victors, Bismarck, having achieved his purpose in Denmark, capitalized on Austria's difficulties in Italy, declared war on his erstwhile ally, and, after a short struggle, brought her to her knees.

The almost miraculous turn of events found William and Bismarck with the support of a great majority in Parliament. The cause of national unity once again brought about a coalition of the Conservatives and the bulk of the liberal representatives. The coalition meant that the Conservatives had fully accepted the "liberal" ideas of national unification and that the "liberals" had agreed to forego the reality of democracy—provided that some semblance of democracy would be retained. Consequently, in 1866, Parliament indemnified (by a vote of 230 to 75) Bismarck for the unconstitutional collection of taxes since 1862. This was Bismarck's first tangible victory over middle-class liberalism. The indemnity vote proved once more that the middle class were more concerned with national unity than with popular government.

The indemnity question resulted in a regrouping of political parties. The Progressive Party was divided when, in 1866, fifteen of its members from the "left center" founded the National Liberal Party, this group supporting Bismarck in the indemnity vote. The remnant of the Progressive Party remained the only party opposing autocracy in all forms and, in particular, military expansion, drawing its support largely from the lower middle class and the better-informed among the proletariat. In this quarter liberalism gradually gave way to the rising Social Democratic Party.

The new National Liberal Party found its rise to power and importance amazingly rapid. Backed by the upper middle class—particularly the business men, bankers, lawyers, physicians, and professors—it was the outspoken champion of the interests of this class. As to its general policy, the Party supported, in principle, the ideals of the Revolution of 1848 and hoped for a united Germany (excluding Austria) to fulfill the ideal. More specifically, the party advocated free trade, responsible parliamentary government, and broad personal liberties. The reasons for this platform are quite obvious. Lip service paid to the revolutionary principles would prevent too wide a split between the Party and the Progressives, who could be useful if Bismarck should again attempt to act without constitutional authority. Then, too, a declaration of the principles of 1848 could stand as a solemn warning to the Junkers, should the

Conservatives attempt a political comeback. Only by free trade and without government regulation of industry could Prussian "big business" prosper, and only upon the constitutional basis of broad personal liberties could the National Liberals appeal to the masses against the Socialists. Furthermore, personal freedom included—according to the party—the freedom to exploit both in the labor and the commodity market.

When the North German Bund came into being in 1867, the National Liberals felt that they had achieved one of their primary purposes, that of national unity. When the parliament of the Bund met in February, the party was there in force. The Constitution which was adopted met with the full approval of the party, for the prominence of Prussia which it guaranteed pleased its members' localist inclinations, and the document's conservative tone was thought to be a guarantee of upper middle-class economic prosperity. One member remarked: "The lady is very ugly, but we shall marry her for all that"⁸—a reasonable indication that at least some members of the party were somewhat fearful of the long-range effects of their victory.

In the next few years the party increased in strength until by 1871 it had become the most powerful in the land. The National Liberals threw their support behind Bismarck during the Franco-Prussian War, and between 1871 and 1878 the party, in coalition with the Free Conservatives and the Radical parties, became Bismarck's most useful tool. Bismarck was not a National Liberal and had no desire to be a National Liberal; but the party served his ends well, for "the National Liberal crew were content to man the ship of state and to work at improving the engines, while the Chancellor stood on the bridge directing the navigation . . . through the uncharted home waters."⁹

By 1873 the payments on the French indemnity had stopped, and the Bund was faced with a financial slump. Bismarck realized that the upper middle class had high social aspirations and still resented the privilege enjoyed by the Junkers. He was glad, therefore, to admit various representatives of their class—always from the party and particularly the great in-

dustrialists—to the “inner circle of privilege.”¹⁰ Having been “taken into the partnership,” National Liberals became increasingly aware of the importance of their role. The cause of Bismarck had become the cause of the party, for economic security was dependent upon maintaining the coalition against both the Socialists (Social Democratic Party) and the ultra-Conservatives. The driving force behind numerous economic and governmental reforms was the National Liberal Party; the common imperial currency (1871), the Imperial Bank (1873), the reform of the Imperial Post Office, the Imperial Railway Office (1873), and the Codification of Criminal law (1877) were all reforms proposed by the National Liberals.¹¹

On the other hand, Bismarck himself proposed legislation which the National Liberals refused to enact. A proposal to nationalize the railways (obviously a plan which would have weakened private capital) was rejected. Against the Chancellor's wishes the Supreme Court was established at Leipzig rather than at Berlin. In 1874 Bismarck proposed that the army be made independent of parliamentary control. The plan was literally blasted by the National Liberals.¹²

With success crowning its every effort, the National Liberal Party was blind to the fact that its very success was leading it along the way to destruction. Liberalism had value to the upper middle class only so far as their own advantage was concerned, and the privileges and benefits won by the National Liberty Party were interpreted to apply only to themselves. Liberal principles, they felt, need not be applied to dangerous political opponents. Having the sympathies of Bismarck, the Party felt secure from Junker opposition, but against the proletariat (represented politically in the Social Democratic Party) every effort was made to reduce its political strength.¹³

The middle class feared the rise of the political strength of the proletariat, and the proletariat argued that under National Liberal domination the rich were growing richer and the poor were growing poorer. Consequently, each class strengthened its own convictions; the radicalism of the Social Democrats grew more radical and the conservatism of the National Liberals more reactionary, so that by 1878 the

Social Democratic Party was officially outlawed by the Imperial government.¹⁴

Furthermore, in their alliance with Bismarck in the *Kulturkampf*, the National Liberals had won the antagonism of the Roman Catholic Center Party. After 1878 the National Liberal Party began a slow but certain decline resulting from the lack of a cause popular among the masses, the contradictory language of its spokesmen, and its dependence for support upon a single social stratum.¹⁵

Bismarck and the party's opponents (particularly the Center) were well aware of these defects. The Catholic Center and the Conservatives missed no opportunity to point out to the Chancellor that the Empire had gone into a new economic decline and that the National Liberals were responsible for the situation. The failure to nationalize the railways had made impossible a valuable imperial revenue, and the only source of income sufficiently large to bolster the national budget would have been a protective tariff. Bismarck realized that this radical departure from the free trade system would alienate National Liberal support. The National Liberals had one hundred and fifty (150) votes in the Reichstag, and the Party could always rely upon the support of the Progressives, should Bismarck again act without constitutional authority. The Chancellor attempted to split the National Liberal Party by offering Bennigsen, the party leader, a high imperial office. When the offer was refused, Bismarck encouraged the press to disseminate propaganda for a tariff. After eighteen months of bitter controversy the question came up for vote in Parliament. In July the question was decided in favor of Bismarck; only sixteen National Liberals, however, voted with the government.

Following the tariff vote, the party again divided (1880), and the road to destruction was now clear. The “secession” group soon affiliated with the Progressives, but being dissatisfied in this camp, they gradually turned to a new party, the German Free Thinkers. In the next election many former National Liberal seats were given to the Center, the Socialists, and the Radicals. Bennigsen retired from public life in 1883, and the old branch of the Party finally attached itself to the interests of the government.

"The old National Liberalism had been the most powerful intellectual, educative, and political force in forming a united Germany; but when in 1867 it subordinated free institutions to unity, when in 1870 it accepted without a struggle the system of 1867 as the basis of the Empire, when it . . . helped . . . to ruin the Budget control of Parliament, and when in 1878 it consented to pass the law against the Social Democrats, it destroyed itself."¹

¹ An adequate treatment of this subject is to be found in William Harbutt Dawson, *The German Empire 1867-1914 and the Unity Movement* (2 vols.; New York: The Macmillan Company, 1919), I, 49-90.

² Guido De Ruggiero, in *The History of European Liberalism* (London: Oxford University Press, 1927), pp. 248-250, implies that the democratic efforts of the Assembly were abortive; Dawson in *The German Empire*, pp. 85-90, is more favorable in his estimate and regards the work of the Assembly as a real step in liberal progress.

³ The term "class" as used in this connection refers to the grouping of taxpayers who together paid one-third of the taxes forming the first class; the next largest taxpayers paying another third of the taxes forming the second class; and the rest of the people who paid . . . the remaining third forming the third class." A. Lawrence Lowell, *Government and Parties in Continental Europe* (2 vols.; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company, 1896), I, 304. Elsewhere the term class will refer primarily to social station, the aristocracy being the Junker landowners, the upper middle class being the wealthy business and industrial interests, the lower middle class being the small tradesmen, and the lower class being the peasant proprietors, farm laborers, and the industrial proletariat. Werner Sombart, *Die deutsche Volkswirtschaft im neunzehnten Jahrhundert und im Anfang des 20. Jahrhunderts* (Berlin: Georg Bondi, 1921), pp. 440 ff.

⁴ These developments are discussed from the economic point of view by Clive Day, *Economic Development in Europe*, (New York: the Macmillan Company, 1942), pp. 378-382, and from the sociological point of view by Franklin Charles Palm, *Europe Since Napoleon* (Boston: Ginn and Company, 1934), pp. 141-143. Werner Sombart, *The Quintessence of Capitalism* (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1915), pp. 281-284 deals with the philosophical aspect of 19th century capitalism.

⁵ William Harbutt Dawson, *Bismarck and State Socialism* (London: Swan Sonnenschein and Company, 1891), pp. 37-38.

⁶ Rohan D. Butler, *The Roots of National Socialism* (New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, 1942), pp. 111.

⁷ Dawson argues that according to the terms of the Constitution of 1850 (article 99) which requires assent of the Crown and two chambers for all revenue expenditures, the lower house was really the unconstitutional party, for it read into the constitution a claim which was not there, namely: that money bills are the concern of the lower house exclusively (*The German Empire*, I, 144-145). The weakness of Dawson's argument is that the lower house, apparently, did not question William's right to introduce the bill, but simply refused assent—according to the constitutional article in question, a legitimate right. When the Crown proceeded to collect the taxes without consent of the lower house, the Crown—again in light of the same article—became the unconstitutional party. Dawson's admiration for Bismarck (*Ibid.*, p. vii, ff.) has prompted him to justify his hero.

⁸ C. Grant Robertson, *Bismarck*, (London: Constable and Company, 1919), p. 285.

⁹ *Ibid.*, p. 302.

¹⁰ [Geoffrey] Barraclough, *The Origins of Modern Germany*, (Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1946) p. 426.

¹¹ Robertson, *op. cit.*, pp. 302-303.

¹² *Ibid.*, p. 304.

¹³ Butler, *op. cit.*, p. 154.

¹⁴ De Ruggiero argues this point in favor of the radicals, *op. cit.*, 269-270. Butler, *op. cit.*, 154, is more favorable to the National Liberals, but also points out the weakness of the party's position.

¹⁵ Robertson, *op. cit.*, p. 320.

¹⁶ Robertson, *op. cit.*, p. 378.

The Teachers' Page

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It wasn't so many years ago that all teachers, before they received their (teaching) wings from their respective teachers colleges or schools of education, were made to memorize the seven objectives of The Cardinal Principles of Education. One of the objectives, it will be recalled, was worthy home membership. Since 1918, there have been other studies and other statements of objectives. Not one of these fails to give emphasis to the need for training the individual in worthy home membership.¹

Unfortunately, the statement of an objective and the institution of the means to realize it may be "worlds apart." The fault may not, however, be intentional. Many high school curricula, for example, following the appearance of The Cardinal Principles, attempted to meet the objective implied in worthy home membership by offering courses dealing with such sociological concepts as the nature and origin of the family and the causes of divorce and juvenile delinquency. However, as presented

in the classroom, and as usually covered in textbooks, the material frequently lacked the warmth, simplicity and naturalness of treatment to effect any change in the character and personality development of the student. Even today, thirty-two years after the appearance of *The Cardinal Principles*, many schools still fail in providing functional courses in worthy home membership.

The social studies have traditionally been concerned with history, political science, and geography. Sociology was admitted later, but chiefly as a formal study of social institutions. Isn't it time for the social studies to humanize sociology and at the same time adopt psychology as one of its children?

It is somewhat disturbing that leading local, regional, and national associations of social studies teachers fail to give adequate attention, in their periodic get-togethers, to the teaching of such subjects as marriage and family relations, the emotions, personality adjustment and mental health. There are programs and speakers scheduled to discuss American history, world history, labor problems and citizenship, but none on the role of the social studies teachers in helping the student to become a worthy member of his family, to understand himself and others better and to achieve emotional maturity.

That there is increased interest in, and emphasis on, education in human relations, particularly marriage and family living, which of necessity includes education in personality, sex and the emotions, is apparent. However, to date, most of such education is diffused among such subject fields as home economics, home nursing, health education, English, and the social studies.

Considerable impetus to the movement of educating young people of high school age in marriage and family living has been given by the National Council on Family Relations. It publishes a quarterly journal *Marriage and Family Living*, which is devoted to current research and teaching in the field. In the 1949 spring issue, there were several contributions regarding the teaching of family relationships in the high school. The following are some of the significant excerpts, indicating current trends, written by May E. York, Family Life

Education Coordinator, City School, Greensboro, N. C.:

High school administrators are beginning to see the great need for marriage and family life education becoming part of the secondary school curriculum

Most high school young people do not go to college. During their junior and senior years a considerable number marry

Materials on the secondary school level are becoming more numerous. In the field of mate seeking, and mate matching, marriage and family living, an increasing body of science has been in the process of building for some fifteen years²

From Mildred I. Morgan, Family Life Coordinator, City Schools, Asheville, N. C.:

Many, who some time ago thought that education for family life should be concentrated at the college or the adult level, now know they were wrong. High school graduation represents terminal education for too many of our population for us not to concentrate on that level.

Home economics departments have long been teaching family relationships in the high school Tulsa, Oklahoma, for example, requires a course in "personal relationships" before a student is granted a diploma. These classes have been coeducational from the beginning—many years ago.

Good films and recordings are now being produced in this field which are wonderful teaching devices³

Regarding course content, there is general agreement among educators in the field. Dr. Joseph Kirk Folsom would include education in the following areas:

Home and consumer economics.

Sex education.

Education for interpersonal relationships.⁴

The Committee on Education for Marriage and Family Living, under the chairmanship of Lester Kirkendall, in its report at the 1948 annual conference of the National Council on Family Relations, stressed the following:

. . . Since marriage requires emotionally mature people, the schools cannot ignore their part in developing and fostering emotional maturity. In the past, emphasis has been placed upon the physical and intel-

lectual development of the child. Now emphasis must be placed on emotional development

Since problems of sex are primarily problems of interpersonal relationships, education in all aspects of interpersonal relationships will contribute toward good relationships in marriage

Courses in family living should include psychology, biology, child care and home management, with major emphasis on psychology⁵

Alice B. Lorens, Department of Education, Toledo University, feels that education for family living should be continuous from the nursery school through college. The high school can incorporate training in this area in several of its subjects. However, she stresses that:

In addition to family life education as projected into every curricular subject, there is need for a comprehensive specific course taught to boys and girls together, preferably in psychology or sociology, under some such captions as *Personal and Social Relationships*, *Marriage and Family Life*, *Family Living* Such a course—and here, too, the qualifications of a teacher are very important—would be keyed to those who are likely to marry soon after leaving high school. By the direct method, through a discussion of dating, courtship, engagement, early marriage, parenthood, child development, family relationships, religion in daily living, community participation and other topics, it would more realistically prepare our youth for their own family life.⁶

The importance of sex education is stressed by all these writers. At the same time, it is emphasized that mere education in sex as a topic removed from the general context of a broad course in human relations is not desirable. Paul H. Landis of the State College of Washington, makes this point clear.

. . . In too many communities, the public still conceives of family life education as being primarily sex education. This is not the case, as all those who are interested in the problem know. Sex education is only an incidental part of training for marriage

and family life. Much more important, is to give young people a total conception of the sociological aspects of marriage and family life and some idea of the psychological implications.

In fact, we are coming to appreciate more and more, as we study marriage relationships, that the sociological and psychological aspects are the most deterministic factors in the sexual relationships of marriage, rather than the physical relationships of sex being the deterministic factor it once was supposed to be.⁷

Democracy is a way of life. Effective democratic living requires the ability and willingness of individuals to plan and work together toward common goals. Such living together presupposes a commonality of interests, a sensitivity to the rights of others, an awareness of responsibilities, and a willingness to compromise.

However, as much as it would be desired, such living together is not spontaneous. There is not always a commonality of interests among all people, even among members of the same family. Goals may be conflicting. The struggle for existence can and does make individuals selfish, self-centered, embittered, hostile, and aggressive. To foster a living together that is free of interpersonal and intergroup strife there must be consciously directed training. A major part of that training is the responsibility of the social studies.

¹ Part of the present issue of the Teachers' Page are excerpts from the writer's doctoral dissertation, *Development of Resource Units in a Course in Human Relations*.

² May E. York, "What Is Being Done in Marriage and Family Life Education in the Schools," *Marriage and Family Living*, XI (Spring, 1949).

³ Mildred I. Morgan, "Teaching Family Life Relations in High School," *Marriage and Family Living*, XI (Spring, 1949).

⁴ Joseph Kirk Folsom, *The Family and Democratic Society*.

⁵ Committee on Education for Marriage and Family Living in the Schools, *Marriage and Family Living*, XI (Winter, 1949).

⁶ Alice B. Lorenze, "Education for Marriage and Family Life in the Schools," *Marriage and Family Living*, XI (Spring, 1949).

⁷ Paul H. Landis, "Training Teachers for Family Life Education in High Schools," *Marriage and Family Living*, X (Fall, 1948).

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News and Comment

LEONARD B. IRWIN

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A JAUNDICED VIEW OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In the *Atlantic Monthly* for March there was an article by Albert Lynd which has attracted much attention among school people and probably among other readers also. It was entitled, somewhat unfortunately, "Quackery in the Public Schools." Actually Mr. Lynd's criticisms are aimed only indirectly at the public schools, since he considers them the unfortunate victims of the "quackery" in schools of education. The latter are his real targets.

Mr. Lynd's principal thesis is that control over what is taught in the public schools has gradually slipped away from taxpayers, the parents and the public generally, and into the hands of a body of professional educators in the schools of education. He asserts that the usual assumption that education is democratically and locally controlled is a myth. While the public pays the bills, and occasionally exerts a voice in some extraneous matter such as whether to build a football stadium or join

in the federal lunch program, it has extremely little to say about what shall be taught or how it shall be done. These matters, the public is told, are professional and should be left to trained experts—that is, the administrators and teaching staff. Since the latter must be graduates of professional schools, their educational philosophy naturally tends to be that impressed on them in these training courses.

There can be little doubt that Mr. Lynd's point is well-taken. There is actually little a community can do about controlling its schools' objectives and philosophy other than to avoid employing those persons whose ideas are too markedly extreme and unpopular. The community which might wish to run its schools in a manner not in accord with modern professional opinion would face numerous obstacles—the difficulty of obtaining competent personnel, the disapproval of the state department, or loss of accreditation by a regional association. All of these are directly or in-

directly controlled by the large schools of education and teachers colleges. Of course, it is difficult to propose a working alternative. Education is a tremendous business in this country and as such needs specialists to study its problems. The only unfortunate thing is that the specialists have become entrenched in a sort of unassailable bureaucracy or institutionalism which does not compel them to be responsive to popular will at any point.

What concerns Mr. Lynd is not merely the existence of this absentee landlordism in the schools but particularly the way it is exercised. Mr. Lynd has a neat gift of words, witty and sharp, and he impales the schools of education with a merciless rapier. The pretense to scholarship and learning which is so often a gigantic hollow shell evokes his best efforts. He pokes bitter fun at the shallow academic "survey" courses and the endless ways in which the techniques of teaching are packaged so as to give the illusion of educational riches and variety, like a super-market with vistas of brightly-colored boxes, cans, bottles and cartons on its shelves—all containing prunes, just prunes. Our professional schools have made a fetish of the "science" of pedagogy at the expense of real learning and teaching ability.

It is in this kind of situation that the danger of an educational monopoly by self-perpetuating experts lies. It would be nearly as bad if the monopolists were classical scholars who insisted that schools must be taught only by other classicists. Any monopoly tends to become ritualized, inflexible and self-worshipping; it loses touch with reality and the common man. Mr. Lynd doubts if there is much the public can do about it, but he registers a vigorous protest nevertheless.

ARE OUR SCHOOLS REALLY FAILING?

Present-day trends in education, from the kindergarten to the graduate school, have been increasingly under fire from critics who blame the modern school for many of society's ills. Such writers as Albert Lynd, whose recent article was discussed above, Bernard Iddings Bell, author of *Crisis in Education*, or Mortimer Smith, to mention only three, are intelligent, highly literate and widely read objectors to much of the philosophy and method in current American education. We may be in-

clined to feel that their criticism does not matter a great deal, since the professional control of education in this country is ironfisted in everything but finances, at least. There is little likelihood that the critics can arouse the public to a rebellion, since they have no clear constructive alternative program to offer. But there is always the danger that they can undermine public confidence in the educational system and this loss of faith will show itself in a greater reluctance to vote the funds necessary for any kind of education. Furthermore, there is the problem that sometimes nags at the minds of American teachers—are we doing the right thing, or may the critics be right? Pride in a great profession and self-respect forbid us to bury our heads and dismiss criticism airily as coming from the unenlightened and ill-informed. For our own good we should examine it.

What are some of the chinks which opponents most commonly find, or think they find, in our armor? What do they believe is wrong with us and how justified are their complaints? Let's face our accusers and see what they have. The list that follows is far from complete but it includes some of the most common charges.

(1) Modern education concerns itself too much with relative rather than absolute values. It seeks chiefly to train young people to do acceptably the things that will help them get along conveniently in society, but it does not concern itself enough with teaching them understanding, moral values, ethics, religious truths, or a stern appreciation of what is right and wrong, or even of what is in good taste.

(2) Modern education avoids training young minds in the "dull" disciplines of knowledge, such as reading, spelling, writing and figuring; it avoids insistence on the kinds of learnings that were a normal part of education from the time of Socrates down to the third decade of the twentieth century. It gives children what they like, rather than what they ought to have.

(3) Modern education encourages immaturity and a stereotyped mediocrity. By making schooling easy, by setting the school's objectives down to the lowest common denominator, it encourages superficiality and a disregard for creativeness, hard work and real thinking.

(4) Modern education is trying to handle not only the traditional functions of a school, but also too many of those which once belonged to the home. As a result, much worthwhile training is being done only partially if at all. The school cannot and should not encourage or permit the home to abdicate its proper duties.

(5) The standards of training required for teachers are inadequate and unrealistic. They are based on credits and courses in pedagogy, theory and methods prescribed by professors and schools of education rather than on qualities of scholarship, breadth of knowledge and understanding, and an ability to transmit these things.

These are some of the most common charges made against education in the United States. They are serious, and if true to any considerable extent they constitute a powerful indictment of an institution that includes one person in every five of our population. To what extent, then, are they true? Are we teachers deluding the nation with a false promise when we say that education (as we offer it) is the only true hope for improving mankind?

In weighing the accusations against the facts, we must first clear away the "lunatic fringe." That is to say, we must be willing to admit that in some places, and of some groups or individuals, all these charges are true. Extremists in idealistic theory have frequently made education a laughing-stock by the inanity and stupidity of their ideas; it is not necessary here to cite examples. There are schools and colleges, teachers, professors and administrators who embody all the soft-headed, bungling and unrealistic practices that critics point to. But if these constitute only a small and uninfluential minority then criticism should be directed at them specifically both from within and without the profession, and not fired broadside at the whole educational program.

There is a second consideration also. To be of any value, a criticism must be constructive. That is, it must maintain that Program A is not so desirable as Program B. If there is no Program B, then the criticism is useless and unjustified. What is this alternative to present educational practices and philosophies? All the critics are careful to disclaim any desire to

return to the days of the little red schoolhouse and McGuffey's *Readers*. They do not advocate a return to memory-rota recitation, to the willow switch, or the purely classical curriculum. The difficulty seems to be that while they are content to see progress away from these ancient relics, they are not willing to accept the changes that this transition has brought with it. They feel somehow that the modern school system should educate *all* children today at least as well as a *few* children were once educated. Because it fails to do this, they condemn it out of hand; they do not offer a prescription, however.

Modern education does have serious drawbacks. The average high school graduate today probably (though not certainly) is less well grounded in the traditional elements of a liberal education than his counterpart of forty years ago. But today's average graduate is not going to live in the world of forty years ago. Again, we must remember that today's average graduate is at about the 70th percentile of the whole population in mental ability, home background and other selective factors, while the one of forty years ago was at the 95th percentile or higher. This difference can account for a very great many of the faults that people see in the schools. There can be no question that if modern schools, with their superior methods and equipment, were to devote themselves solely to the top 10 per cent of the pupils who came to them, they would turn out a product beyond any reasonable criticism. But they would have to neglect the other 90 per cent which formerly never even went to high school, much less college. For to a considerable extent the same situation applies to colleges and will do so even more when two years of college come to be accepted as the normal extension of a democratic public education.

There is certainly some basis to all the criticisms previously listed. Modern education does tend to accept mediocrity and slipshod performance. It does back away from any real effort to indoctrinate principles of conduct, taste and morality by precept, preferring to hope that these will be learned by indirection through experience. It does frequently spread itself very thinly over the vast area of human

knowledge, so that often its human product appears to have gained only a very light veneer of learning. It has developed a considerable body of red tape, pedagogical double-talk and centralized control; and it all too frequently gives the impression of trying to do too many things at once. It has become an institution almost as invulnerable as the medieval church, through its protective laws and self-perpetuating training system; and its devotees often seem to forget that education is merely a means to an end and not an end in itself. Yes, modern education is far from guiltless. Yet does it deserve the wholehearted disapprobation of its critics?

The only true test of any process is its product. It is for the quality of our present-day product that the educational system is criticized. We are turning out, they say, a generation of ill-mannered, semi-literate, cynical young people whose only standard of value is a "quick buck" with plenty of security. They point to the Aldrich Family as the typical American domestic unit, to the comic books, the fatuous radio and television programs, the crime and divorce rate and all the other evidences of immaturity in our people. They blame the schools.

What are the facts? Are the people of this country today a poorer quality than those of previous generations? I think not. We shudder at the presence of crime and delinquency; yet a fair comparison with the past shows that today we have far less open violence, gangsterism, terrorism and general lawlessness. The proof is in our histories and our newspaper files. Nor can any historian deny that the level of political honesty has risen tremendously. Despite a few notable exceptions our local, state and national governments are incomparably more free from outright thievery and brazen skulduggery than was true even thirty years ago. The same thing is true of industrial practices and labor relations.

Public standards of taste today may not be good, but have they deteriorated? A little while ago there was published a list of the best-selling books for each of the past fifty years. It speaks for itself. *Graustark*, *Freckles* and *Pollyanna* have given way to *The Grapes of Wrath*, *A Bell for Adano*, and *The Egyptian*.

As for comic books as adult reading fare, it is fairly certain that the kind of adults who read them now are the kind who read nothing at all (if they *could* read) a generation or two ago. There is a far greater market today for good music; the sort of thing which the average man enjoyed fifty years ago evokes only sentimental nostalgia and amusement now, not admiration. Even our popular music for the most part is technically superior to that of a quarter century ago. Critics of education point to the quality of radio, television and movie entertainment as proof that the people are growing more immature; they say it is because the schools are hewing to the line of least resistance in the standards they require. It seems to me there may be two fallacies in this reasoning. The first is the assumption that public taste is lower than it used to be. The fact is that modern inventions have simply made the manifestations of poor taste more obvious. Radio, motion pictures and television make it possible to multiply vulgar entertainment on a far wider scale, but that does not prove that our fathers would have scorned it had it been available to them. The record shows that even fifty years ago or less commercial entertainment was frequently at a level so crude and questionable that it would be banned today or die from lack of patronage. The "simple pleasures" of yesteryear were not necessarily due to a higher standard of taste and education but rather to a lack of any more exciting alternatives. The history of motion pictures, too, is significant. When one recalls the plots, moral standards and general quality of acting in the pictures of a quarter-century or more ago there is a great deal to be said for the present-day Hollywood output.

The second fallacy is the assumption that any cheapness in the general level of public taste today is due to the educational system. It may be true, but it should be remembered that today's school system must compete with commercial rivals that did not exist in past generations. The radio, movies, comics and popular magazines are potent educational factors which can and do undermine much of the school's efforts. In short, it is reasonable to say that poor popular entertainment is as much a cause of the schools' failure as a result of it.

It would be easy to continue at great length to examine the quality of the people today—their health, prejudices, superstitions, awareness of public problems, ability to adjust to new conditions, and so on. Anyone who can make historical comparisons without bias can draw conclusions for himself. I think he will find that the American people today as a whole do not take second place to any previous generation. If this is true it is the best possible refuta-

tion of the charges against the educational system, for if education is to be debited for our weaknesses it should also be credited with our strengths. There are many things that need improvement and we in the profession should be the first to call attention to them. But until it can be clearly shown that the human output of today's schools is inferior to that of any other total educational program, a general condemnation is based on dubious logic.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

DAVID W. HARR

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The Disruption of American Democracy. By Roy Franklin Nichols. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Pp. 612. \$7.50.

Here is a clear and penetrating interpretation of the period in American History immediately preceding the Civil War, a confusing yet fascinating decade for any student of history, whether viewed in the light of personalities involved or of events that kept the nation teetering on the edge of an abyss.

Among a number of books that have come from the press in more recent years portraying the life of ante-bellum days and analyzing the probable causes of the Civil War, this volume is among the clearest and the best. It is thoroughly scholarly and eminently readable. Its point of view is comparatively new, refreshingly different.

The author recognizes the fact that the causes of the Civil War were multiform, consisting of social, constitutional, racial, economic, moral, personal and geographic factors, but he also believes that the strongest motivating cause has seldom been realized, namely, the disruption of the dominant political party of the times. He contends that the breaking up of the party, known as "American Democracy," which had controlled national life for a generation, with few exceptions, weakened the whole national structure and made possible a situation in which anything could happen. This contention is more than a hypothesis. It is a conclusion which Dr. Nichols has reached after

years of specialized study of the personalities and events of this decade.

In *The Disruption of American Democracy*, for which the author was awarded the Pulitzer Prize in 1949, the reader is shown how the times failed to appreciate the danger, how demoralization followed as the national party was repudiated at the polls as factions developed in the several states, and how the definite disruption was effected in the Charleston Convention, carrying down the Union with it. The cohesion of the nation was broken and the parts became irreconcilable. The result was defeat, secession and Civil War. This unique, plausible and, in many respects, convincing theory of the cause of the Civil War is presented with fascinating detail. The narrative moves along like a Greek drama in which the reader can see the inevitable nemesis approaching as he follows the clearly drawn characters and the tragic events of those fateful days.

No student of American history can afford to miss the pleasure and profit of reading this thoughtful, informative, scholarly work which has already deservedly received wide recognition as a distinguished contribution to American history.

H. M. J. KLEIN

Franklin and Marshall College
Lancaster, Pennsylvania

The Western Reserve. By Harlan Hatcher. Indianapolis: The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc., 1949. Pp. 365. \$4.00.

The Western Reserve of Connecticut was, for almost one hundred years, one of the most unique sections of the United States. This area, comprising twelve present-day counties of northeastern Ohio, is even now a curious geographical entity. The reason for this uniqueness lies in the peculiar circumstances surrounding a transplantation of Connecticut to the southern shore of Lake Erie at the end of the Revolutionary period in American history.

Within this region of some three million acres, approximately the size of the nutmeg State, between 1796 and the ending of the first quarter of the nineteenth century, an extension of Connecticut's social, political, and educational structure occurred. Modified only slightly by contact with the frontier, the region became "more like New England than New England itself." Moreover, as late as 1949, the visitor might trace Connecticut in the names on the land and in the white-walled and pillared town halls that identify the New England system of local government.

Harlan Hatcher, vice-president of the Ohio State University and author of *Lake Erie* and *The Great Lakes*, dedicates this volume to "all descendants of those Connecticut pioneers who settled the Western Reserve, and the men and women of all nations who have helped make it what it is today." And indeed there are two stories to be told of the settling of the Reserve.

The first, and greatest, commemorates the long trek of the Connecticut men to the isolated townships of "New Connecticut," where, following along the survey lines, each party came to its island fastness in the wilderness, there to set up its little republic in the tradition of Thomas Hooker and his devoted band who colonized the banks of the Long River.

The second, and later migration, followed the new industrialism and urbanization which trod upon the heels of the Civil War and which, for a time, threatened to wipe out the culture complexes of the Puritan. That this did not occur, says Hatcher, is a tribute to the thoroughness of the early transplantation of the Connecticut culture. "It is," he says, "like one of the ancient parchment manuscripts where a new composition has been written over the letters of the old without destroying them, and the original may be read by experts in palimpsests."

However, one need not be an expert to sense Connecticut in the rural counties of the Reserve. Tallmadge's New England Congregational Church was featured in a recent Thanksgiving issue of *Life*; Western Reserve Academy at Hudson has been denominated a "baby Yale"; and Jefferson, the home of Giddings and Wade, is the "New England village" in which William Dean Howells was reared. Indeed, Burke Aaron Hinsdale, a son of the Reserve and the president of a great Mid-Western university, maintained that "outside of New England . . . (no other territory) had to begin with so pure a New England population. (And) no similar territory west of the Allegheny mountains has so impressed the brain and conscience of the country."

Hatcher's twenty-three chapters include the antecedents of settlement in the mother State and tell of the struggle of the Connecticut Land Company with the soil jurisdiction of the Reserve as well as describing the pattern of settlement and the development of the Puritan culture. They also detail the epics of canal and railway building and the development of Cleveland into the great lake port of the iron and steel era. *The Western Reserve* closes with "The Era of Oil" and "The New Urban Centers," which picture a Reserve in transition from the nineteenth century, which lingered longer in "New Connecticut," to a bustling, metropolitan twentieth.

Twenty-eight illustrations, including the Mormon Temple at Kirtland, Edison's home at Milan, the library at Hiram College, and St. John's Cathedral in Cleveland enliven the book and a three-page bibliographical note provides the documentation which, as modern publishing will have it, is omitted.

Omitted too is reference to the Connecticut pattern of education which did much to sustain the culture of the East in the new forest commonwealth of the West. Indeed, it would seem that Mr. Hatcher passed up a fertile opportunity to add to the luster of the region which he described with so much pride. For it was within the Reserve that the impetus for state-wide development of the public high school occurred through the Akron Act of 1848 and it was in the Reserve where the earliest normal seminaries, teachers' institutes, and even the first

state teachers' organization were found. Moreover, in its institutions of higher education, some of which Mr. Hatcher mentions, the Reserve pioneered from the earliest beginning with Burton Academy, Western Reserve College, and Oberlin. Even Lake Erie College had its beginning in a day when higher education for women was little more than a laughing matter.

Nevertheless, Mr. Hatcher has managed to capture the spirit of "New Connecticut" and although he leans to a debunking of the moral and religious qualities of the early settlers he has set a standard in regional writing which offers an opportunity for imitation which, in this case, at least, will be the sincerest flattery.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

Willamette University
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The Negro in the United States. By E. Franklin Frazier. New York: Macmillan, 1949. Pp. xxxi, 767. \$6.00.

In writing the most significant survey of the Negro in America to appear since 1944, E. Franklin Frazier, of Howard University, has brought to his task the experience of a competent sociologist. Since comparison with the Gunnar Myrdal project is virtually inescapable, Professor Frazier has attempted to explain the relative objectives of the two books. "The Myrdal study," he observes, "was concerned with broad social policy in dealing with the Negro problem. The present study is . . . concerned . . . rather with the process by which the Negro has acquired American culture and has emerged as a racial minority or ethnic group, and the extent to which he is being integrated into American society."

Basically, the author has written a social and economic account of the Negro people, continually demonstrating their relationship to American society as a whole. There is a real attempt to project the record of the American Negro against the background of a changing national scene. Whether he is discussing the poetry of Jupiter Hammon and Phyllis Wheatley, the colonization program of Marcus Garvey, or the emergence of A. Phillip Randolph as a national labor leader, he is fully aware of the environmental circumstances which exerted an influ-

ence on their work.

E. Franklin Frazier possesses a striking gift of intellectual curiosity. He is not content with a mere surface narration. For example, the subject of higher mortality among Negroes than among whites is not discussed in a vacuum. Rather, it is presented in terms of the Negro's susceptibility to chronic diseases, economic status, health and food habits, conditions of housing, and segregated hospital facilities. Throughout most of the book the author demonstrates a willingness to probe to the roots of a topic and to interpret fully the implications of an event.

LEONARD PRICE STAVISKY

Long Island University
New York City, New York

Psychology and Ethics. By Harry L. Hollingsworth. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1949. Pp. 241. \$3.50.

Dr. Hollingsworth's latest work, *Psychology and Ethics*, is an attempt to study the subject of ethics, not in the abstract but in the setting of everyday living. Dr. Hollingsworth believes such an approach is necessary if we are to achieve rules of conduct and moral principles that will serve as much-needed guides in the world of tomorrow.

Throughout the work the reader is reminded that moral principles, like our folkways and institutions, are not static but change as do the other traits composing our culture. This approach becomes particularly important when we consider the results being obtained from the work being done in the field of the social sciences, such important works as *The Kinsey Report*. As Dr. Hollingsworth has stated: "Moral principles for our day need to be expressed in terms of our current understanding of human nature. . . . From time to time we are warned that only a revival of morals can preserve security in our civilization. What variety of moral doctrine is compatible with the modern tempo?"

It is the hope of the author that the scientific approach to ethics that he has employed will lead or assist in leading to a moral insight that will be suited to the future world.

In investigating the subjects with which the work is concerned, some of the principles are employed that have proved to be of value in

such psychological fields as the thought processes and psychopathology. All nine chapters reflect a scholarly approach and thorough understanding of the subject being examined. We are also presented with some of the difficulties confronted in conducting such a study as this and with an excellent appendix containing valuable information about scale information, insight test, etc.

This volume should be of great assistance to those interested in psychology, ethics, and education.

EDWARD M. BEARD

University of Miami
Coral Gables, Florida

Modern Foreign Governments. By Frederick A. Ogg and Harold Zink. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949. Pp. xi, 1004. \$6.00.

Although this is one of the better of the many textbooks on comparative governments published recently, it still has more than its share of glaring weaknesses. The treatment is not always as "truly comparative" as the authors claim, and it is rather strange that the foreign policies of the various governments receive so little attention. Thus, for instance, the satellite countries of Central-Eastern Europe and the Balkans are entirely neglected here; yet, how can any student of this field "forget" the relationship of this area to the operation of the government of the U. S. S. R.? At the same time, too much attention is paid to the Weimar Republic, Germany's military government, and to reconstruction problems. The best sections are those covering "English Government and Politics." The governments of France and Germany, and also those of Norway, Sweden, Argentina and Japan are discussed. Again, we could ask, why has Argentina been selected in spite of the numerous studies showing the characteristics of the governments and politics of Latin America? All in all, the book is well-documented and there are some good chapters in it. But it also demonstrate how chaotic is the field of political science for which the textbook is designed.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

University of Bridgeport
Bridgeport, Connecticut

A World View. By Clarence Woodrow Sorensen. New York: Silver Burdett Company, 1949. Pp. 410. Illustrated. \$4.50.

A World View is the climax unit in a series of four volumes which present "man in his World." In this treatment, the author succeeds well in presenting a wide and varied field of selected, representative materials which should serve well for following through the proposed theme. The realistic approach employed apparently could not fail to arouse interest, while the simplicity of style should lead to ease of understanding.

The wealth of appropriate photographs and maps should enhance interest and comprehension. The occasional colored pictures seem to break the sameness and add further value to the book. This volume presents a collection of statistics and other material which should be quite helpful and have been decidedly neglected by many authors of recent times.

W. A. BROWNE

Teachers College
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Intergroup Relations in Teaching Materials. By the American Council on Education. Washington, D. C.: 1949. Pp. ix, 231. \$3.00.

This study of texts, general reading books and curricular makes an eloquent plea for democratic attitudes toward and treatment of minority groups, especially those of Negro or Jewish descent. The chief conclusion drawn from this book is that few texts are free of bias toward population groups. It is the opinion of the reviewer that texts that perpetuate antagonism should be supported by data from a scientific testing program. Tests should have been made of the attitudes before and after the study of the texts.

RALPH B. GUINNESS

Brooklyn, New York

Albert Einstein: Philosopher-Scientist. Edited by Paul Arthur Schilpp. Volume VII in The Library of Living Philosophers. Evanston, Illinois: The Library of Living Philosophers, Inc., 1949. Pp. xvi, 781. \$8.50.

In a work aptly entitled *Albert Einstein: Philosopher-Scientist*, the Library of Living Philosophers has added to the Einstein legend.

Twenty-five scholars from eleven countries, among them six Nobel Prize winners, have recognized the universality of Einstein's intellect and have thoughtfully appraised all phases of his genius and technique. Their essays honor the human understanding and mental perception of this eminent scientist who stripped inherited scientific thought of its technical prejudices and dogmatic traditions and who ushered in a renaissance of theoretical thinking. Einstein himself has not only written an autobiographical introduction to this volume, but has replied in Part III to the interpretative and critical discussions written by his scholarly contemporaries.

Einstein's invalidation of the Newtonian absolutes of space and time, and his introduction of non-Euclidean geometry into the pedantic scholasticism of the old physics was a veritable revolution. Expository articles wrestle with all technical aspects of relativity as well as Einstein's later works in the quantum theory, gravitation, statistical thermodynamics, and equilibrium fluctuations. However, of more interest to the layman and social scientist are the lucid analyses of Einstein's philosophical and social deportment. The forty-seven translated pages of Einstein's autobiography and the accompanying interpretative studies reveal the spiritual mainsprings and universality of his creative mind. In Einstein is blended the rare combination of a speculative mathematician and a creative artist whose search for scientific truth has not obscured for him the practicalities of humanity. The essays reveal Einstein to be one whose pious humility and love of the human mind have transcended petty prejudice and compelled him to devote his every effort to the problems of world betterment. His is the glorification of a life to the cause of truth and moral responsibility.

The volume is a superb piece of bookmaking, enhanced by a detailed index and a complete bibliography of Einstein's scientific and non-scientific writings, interviews, letters and speeches.

HAROLD M. HELFMAN

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United States of America: A History. By Robert E. Riegel and Helen Haugh. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1948. Revised edition. Pp. viii, 852. \$2.55.

This is an excellent textbook for senior high school classes. The thirty chapters of the book are grouped into nine units, each unit being a period of our history, except for unit six, which deals with a single topic, imperialism. The authors provide a detailed topical outline on pages 811 to 816. This outline includes topics with page references on nine major themes, which have been especially significant since the close of the Civil War. Four units, covering 369 pages, deal with the period before 1870, while the remaining five units, covering 410 pages, are concerned with the period since 1870. Two units of 154 pages are devoted to the period since 1920. These figures indicate the emphasis on recent history. An effort has been made to cover all aspects of American life, political, military, social, economic, cultural, recreational. Like most recent text-books of American history, it is crowded with facts. Organization and abundance of material make it an effective text for use with all save low ability groups.

This is an attractive book. The pages are not crowded. Spacing and arrangement of paragraphs and chapters are excellent. Reading is easy. The illustrations are numerous and well chosen. They are varied, derived from paintings, drawings, photographs, cartoons, and newspaper clippings, and are provided with effective captions. Each unit has a drawing in green and brown ink, designed to give a pictorial preview. A number of pages have been given over to pictures about one outstanding person or theme, mounted and titled to tell an important story. Black and white maps have been designed for specific purposes in the text, and three full page maps are inserted near the end of the book. Pupils will like to look at this book, and should be tempted to read, maybe even study it. They will not be discouraged by vocabulary beyond the comprehension of high school pupils. The chief fault from the pupil point of view is its weight. Students are not going to like to carry it. In quantity of material and physical bulk this book, like most other history textbooks today, has gone beyond the limits of manageability.

The text provides its own workbook. Each chapter is followed by study helps and exercises, key dates, key persons, key terms, discussion questions, investigations, reports, projects, enough for average and exceptional students. Each unit has an excellent book list, including fiction. There is a short list of sound films for use with it. These activities are well planned to carry out the aims of the authors, as stated in the preface, to stimulate interest, to stress continuity of history, to bring about understanding of the past, to emphasize the importance of geography, to develop judgment, to train students in working, thinking, and planning together. The authors believe that, "The student who works, discusses, and solves problems with his fellow students is developing a true understanding of his democratic heritage." The activities are so numerous that any teacher can find ample material for both individual and group assignments.

A workbook to accompany the text has been prepared. It contains the usual type of exercises in the form of questions, analyses, maps, requiring the search for facts rather than their use in any original way by the student. Some additional information is contained in the workbook in the form of drawings, tracing such topics as the evolution of the cookstove. The key to the workbook is a miniature book completed in detail. A set of objective tests, including one to three tests on each unit, is also available. The busy and inexperienced teacher will both be grateful for the many valuable helps to learning and teaching.

MILDRED GOSHOW

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Hellenic History. By George Willis Botsford, and Charles Alexander Robinson, Jr. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1948. Third Edition. Pp. xix, 509. \$6.00.

This is the third edition of a work which originally appeared in 1922 and then again in revised form in 1946. It will be of value for those who teach and study the history of the ancient Hellenes from two points of view: the first, that of a complete and intensive study of a historic culture; the second, that of a selective study of the contributions of that culture to the

modern western world. From either point of departure the teacher and student will find in this book well-organized and clearly presented material more than adequate for their immediate needs. Then, in addition, each will find that this volume not only stimulates a desire for further study but indicates avenues of such investigation which might be followed with profit.

This book reminds us that in many ways the civilization of the ancient Greeks was much like our own, that our modern America has much in common with the Greek city-state. Our culture like that of the Greeks, is seeking a working realization of the ideal of a free democracy; the modern American like the ancient Greek resists religious and political oppression, emphasizes in his work and thought the virtues of individualism, is convinced generally of the basic importance of experience as the guide of life, and relies upon reason and scientific investigation to discover truth. Though the differences between the two cultures are tremendous, still a study of the birth, growth and decay of the civilization of ancient Greece as presented in this book may help us to understand some problems confronting our civilization.

The content of the book has been organized upon a chronological frame. Thus the history of the ancient Greeks is traced through the Bronze Age to the Age of Pericles and concludes with a study of the culture of the Hellenistic Age and the encroachment of Rome upon Greece and the Near East. The authors have chosen to concentrate the political, economic, social and cultural history of the various ages of Greek history in distinct chapters. Yet at no time has violence been done to the chronological frame upon which the text rests nor is there an absence of the integration which is needed to mold these separate areas of study into a coherent whole.

Dr. Robinson has made various changes in this edition which add to its value as a textbook. As to the body of the text, the chapters on the Persian War, the Peloponnesian War, and Alexander the Great have been rewritten. The number of plates, figures in the text and maps has been increased. Indeed, many aids for the teacher are found in this book. In addition to those before mentioned, an excellent chrono-

logical table, glossary and a list of recommended readings in Greek literature must be noted. The select bibliography and index also have been brought up to date. Certainly this book contains material which cannot be exhausted readily by teacher or student. At least one copy of this book should be found in all high school and college libraries for reference purposes. All interested and serious students of history on the college level should be directed to it and should be encouraged to read it thoroughly and earnestly.

MAHLON HELLERICH

Elizabethtown College
Elizabethtown, Penna.

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Workbook for United States History. By Fremont P. Wirth and Jack Allen. New York: American Book Company. Price 72 cents.

Prepared to accompany the textbook by Fremont P. Wirth.

Map Studies in American History. By Philip Dorf. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1946. Price 40 cents.

Brief explicit directions for historical surveys.

Pupil's Study Guide: To Accompany The Record of Mankind. By A. Wesley Roehm and Morris R. Buske. Price 66 cents. D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, Mass.

Workbook to Accompany Geography of the World. By Leonard O. Packard. New York, The Macmillan Company. Price 72 cents.

Problems in Social Living. By Paul H. Landis. New York: Ginn and Company. Price \$1.14.

A workbook to accompany the textbook entitled *Social Living*.

ARTICLES

"Pennsylvania's Greatest Builder of Railroads," by Revelle W. Brown. Department of Internal Affairs, *Monthly Bulletin*, Volume 18, Number 1, December, 1949.

"Schenectady Educates for Effective Citizenship," by Jessie T. Zoller. *New York State Education*, Volume XXXVII, October, 1949.

"Junior Historians." by Mary E. Cunningham. *American Heritage*, I. September, 1949.

"The Spark in Good Teaching," by Charles Brodsky. *Clearing House*, Volume XXIV, September, 1949.

"Monopoly in America," by John F. Bell. *Current History*, Volume 17, December, 1949.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

This Our Nation: From Colony to World Leader. By Arthur C. Bining, Asa E. Martin and Morris Wolf. New York: Newson and Company, 1950. Pp. xxii, 762. Illustrated. \$3.80.

A new textbook for senior high schools, with a wealth of illustrations and aids, that gives special attention to social, economic, religious, and cultural progress.

Challenges to American Youth. By Joseph I. Arnold. New York: Row, Peterson and Company, 1949. Pp. xxviii, 696. Illustrated. \$2.19.

This text makes a distinctive and timely contribution to a curriculum embracing the modern concept of education in a democracy.

Straight Furrow: The Biography of Harry S. Truman. By Cornelia Spencer. New York:

The John Day Company, 1949. Pp. xxiii, 214. \$2.50.

A story in the best American tradition.

Men Who Make Your World, By Members of the Overseas Press Club of America. New York: E. P. Dutton and Company, Inc., 1949. Pp. xxiv, 319. \$3.50.

An excellent authoritative account of world leaders.

The Making of Modern America. By Leon H. Canfield and Howard B. Wilder. Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1950. Pp. xliii, 781. \$2.67.

Far superior in all respects to a previous text by the same authors.

They Came Here First: The Epic of the American Indian. By D'Arcy McNickle. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: J. B. Lippincott and Company, 1949. Pp. xxv, 325. \$3.75.

The Heritage of America: Readings in American History. Edited by Henry Steele Commager and Allan Nevins. Revised Edition. Boston, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1949. Pp. xxxvi, 1227. \$2.50

A fine book to assign to pupils for supplementary reading.

Teaching World Responsibilities. Edited by George I. Oeste. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: College Offset Press, 1949. Pp. 72. \$1.00.

Volume 45 of the *Annual Proceedings* of the Middle States Council for the Social Studies.

World History. By Carlton J. H. Hayes, Parker Thomas Moon and John W. Wayland. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1950. Pp. xlix, 880. \$3.48.

Second revised edition; later chapters have been brought up to date.

A Concise Survey of United States in Its World Setting. By Philip Dorf. New York: Oxford Book Company, 1949. Part I, xii, 174, Part II, xvi, 352. \$1.20.

You Can Read The Bible. By Charles D. Spotts. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: The Christian Education Press, 1949. Pp. 127. \$1.50.

The style is vivid and refreshing.

Washington, City of Destiny. Text by Alice Rogers Hager; Photographs by Jackie Martin. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1949. Pp. vi, 72. \$2.25.

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